

THE USE OF IN VITRO SPERMAL DEVELOPMENT
FOR THE DETERMINATION OF SPERMATOGENESIS
IN FISH

BY
KARL GREGORY COBB

A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE COUNCIL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

1962

To Elizabeth Moore

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express his sincere appreciation to Dr. L. C. Hannah for his guidance, assistance and patience in dealing with a half-mad graduate student. Without his help this dissertation would have not been completed. Special thanks also to Dr. Ross Cheney for helpful discussions about aromatic synthetase, to Dr. Don Humphreys for help in understanding enzyme metabolism, and to Dr. Don Chisholm for his assistance in the wood pulping work. The assistance of Dr. Sandy Ross and Dr. Linda Hall for their helpful suggestions for improving the dissertation. Special thanks to Dr. Harry Adrich for the use of the Tektron printer. A special thanks to Adlenea Kaimosi for the excellent and quick art work.

The author wishes to thank the Norman French Foundation for three years of financial support and the University of Florida for financial support. The author wishes to express appreciation to his parents and grandmother for financial assistance.

The author wishes to expressed sincere appreciation to his wife, C. L. Sheffels for her understanding and aid in finishing this work.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	vi
ABSTRACT.....	vi
INTRODUCTION.....	1
MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	12
Biological Materials.....	12
Development <i>in Vitro</i>	12
Improvement of <i>In Vitro</i> Development.....	12
Kernal Culture Procedures.....	18
Culture Media.....	21
Germination Measurements of Kernal Grown in Culture.....	21
Development of Suspended Retraction Procedure.....	23
Growth Retraction Procedures.....	24
Isotope Assays.....	27
Preparation of ^{14}C -Labeled.....	31
Starch Determinations.....	32
Uptake of radiolabeled Sugars into Whole Kernels.....	33
Gas-Liquid Chromatography.....	34
Ion-Exchange Chromatography.....	35
hydrolysis of ^{14}C Labeled Sugars.....	36
RESULTS.....	37
Development <i>in Vitro</i>	37
Improvement of <i>In Vitro</i> Development.....	40
Development of Kernal Grown in Culture.....	41
Growth of Kernal on Several Culture Media.....	43
Germination and Growth of Kernal Grown in Culture.....	43
Starch Content of Kernal Grown in Culture.....	45
Sugars in Developing Kernal Grown in Different Culture Media.....	46
Analysis of Sugars by Gas Chromatography.....	48
Starch Content in Developing Kernal Grown in Different Culture Media.....	50
Uptake of ^{14}C -Labeled Sugars in Glucose.....	52
Kernal.....	52
analysis of Radiolabel Sugars by Ion-Exchange Chromatography.....	118
DISCUSSION.....	119
Development <i>in Vitro</i>	119
Improvement of Kernal Grown in Culture on Different Culture Media.....	119
Starch Content.....	119
Transport of Sugars into the Kernal.....	121
Metabolism of Labeled Sugars and Glucose.....	121

SUMMARY	147
REFERENCES	151
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH	148

Dissertation presented to the Graduate Council
of the University of Florida in partial fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

THE USE OF IN VITRO KERNEL DEVELOPMENT FOR
THE IDENTIFICATION OF STARCH RESISTANT
IN MAIZE

By

Barry Gregory Gable
May 1982

Chairman: J. C. Harshbarger
Major Department: Horticultural Science

Starch biosynthesis is the main endogenous way
examined by the use of in vitro kernel development. It was
shown that kernels of wild type as well as the starch
deficient mutants shrunken-1 (sh1) and shrunken-2 (sh2),
would develop in maturity when placed in culture on media
containing sucrose at 5 days post-pollination. At maturity
the kernels had their expected phenotypes. Analysis of the
major starch synthetase, amylose diphospho-glucose
polyphosphorylase and starch synthetase throughout
development revealed their activities to be similar to
field grown maize. Sugar and starch levels throughout
development, as well as germination of kernels grown in
vitro, were similar to kernels grown in vivo.

After establishing that growth in vivo was comparable to growth in vitro, experiments were performed to determine if the in vitro kernel development system would be useful in investigating starch biosynthesis. Kernels of wild type, gbl and gbl were grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose. Regardless of the carbon source, sucrose was present in the endosperm of all three genotypes. Also, gbl and gbl kernels accumulated sucrose when grown on reducing sugars indicating that sucrose is synthesized in endosperm cells. The buildup of sucrose in gbl may indicate that sucrose synthetase does not synthesize sucrose.

Wild type and gbl kernels had significantly greater weights and starch content when grown on sucrose whereas gbl kernels had a significantly greater weight and starch content when grown on glucose. There was a correlation between seed vigor and starch content.

The uptake and conversion of [14 C] sucrose and glucose was investigated. Results indicate that 75% of the sucrose was transported into the maize endosperm of the three genotypes without hydrolysis. The uptake of labeled sucrose was lowest in gbl whereas the uptake of labeled glucose was similar in all three genotypes. Also, the conversion of sucrose into other compounds was lowest in gbl. These results are consistent with the notion that the

function of control operations is in the breakdown of
series.

INTRODUCTION

The starch biosynthetic pathway in maize has been investigated in detail by the use of physiological and genetic analysis. Biochemical investigations have identified plant enzymes capable of converting sucrose, through several intermediates, into starch. From these studies, pathways have been proposed for the flow of carbon from sugar to starch (Figure 1). The reactions shown in Figure 1 are known to occur in the maize endosperm cells and have all been implicated as being involved in starch biosynthesis. Because it has not been possible, by physiological means, to determine which sequences of reactions are important to starch biosynthesis, the specific pathway remains unclear.

It has been possible, by genetic analysis, to determine the involvement of a limited number of enzymes in starch biosynthesis. Mutants have been isolated that are characterized by alterations in the amount or quality of

Figure 1. Reaction sequences leading to nitrate biodegradation in the main sequence. The reaction in the upper position are based on kinetic studies. The sequence of reaction in the lower position are based on population data. The reactions indicated in the lower section is a speculation of a reaction sequence (1994). Other two pathways, based on proteomic data, show the degradation pathway. Arrows indicate the main reaction.

100



starch in the endosperm tissue. There have been investigations to determine if an enzyme deficiency can be correlated with the alterations in starch. A deficiency of an enzyme is strong but not definitive evidence that the enzyme has an important and integral role in starch biosynthesis.

By the use of tissue techniques, enzymes were identified that appear to be vital for normal starch biosynthesis to occur. These enzymes include sucrose synthetase, ADP2 glycerophosphorylase and starch synthetase which will be discussed in detail below. From these data a pathway has been proposed and is shown in the top portion of Figure 1 and as the double lines in the bottom portion of the figure.

The flow of carbon from sucrose to starch includes more than the biochemical steps that are outlined in Figure 1. The movement of sucrose from the phloem to the endosperm cells and occurrence of enzymes that may occur must also be considered. The structure of the basal area of the kernel has been examined by Russellbach and Miller (1950), Maccheroni (1951), Russellbach (1949) and more recently by Folmer and Thomas (1960). The vascular bundles terminate below the kernel base where the scutell and colea tissues fuse (Russellbach 1949). Above the vascular tissue is a region consisting of parenchyma cells

from which the closing layer will form (Hilsebach and Waller 1982). Above this is the placenta-chalazal region consisting of parenchyma cells which by 20 days post pollination (20dpp) are dead (Fulker and Shannon 1980). Above the placenta-chalazal region are the remains of the vascular tissue and adjacent to this area are the basal cells of the endosperm. The basal cells of the endosperm are characterized by cell wall ingrowths consistent with their proposed function as transfer cells (Fulker and Shannon 1980, Wethersten 1981).

The movement of sucrose into maize kernels has been extensively studied by Shannon and co-workers. They found that, after supplying [14 C] labeled CO_2 to maize leaves, radioactive sugars and starch could be recovered from the endosperm tissue (Shannon 1969, 1974, Shannon, French and Leach, 1981). One hour after exposure to labeled CO_2 , reducing sugars accounted for greater than 80% of the radioactivity whereas sucrose accounted for the majority of the label after 5 hr. (Shannon 1981). This suggests that sucrose was synthesized during uptake into the kernels and that it was re-synthesized after entry.

In an analysis of the distribution of radioactivity in kernel segments, Shannon (1972) found that most of the labeled reducing sugars were located in the placenta-chalazal region suggesting that sucrose hydrolysis

disappeared in this region. At later time intervals, succrose was found to be labeled but endocytic regions still accounted for most of the label in the glomerular-choroidal region; Shannon and Dougherty (1972) showed that invagination was present in the basal area of the endocytic tissue whereas reverse cytotaxis was not found, implying that only invagination was responsible for the breakdown of succrose in this region.

From these results Shannon (1970) has suggested that hydrolysis of succrose in the basal zone is followed by resynthesis of succrose in the endocytic tissue. Recently Liu and Shannon (1971a,b) have suggested, based on metabolite compartmentalization, that resynthesis of succrose occurs in the myoplasm.

In whole endocytic tissue, succrose hydrolysis does not occur during uptake. In a series of in vitro experiments Jenner (1973,1974) exposed detached sheets such as isolated quail to solutions containing succrose in which the fructose moiety was labeled with ^{14}C . Isolation of succrose from the endocytic tissue showed that the majority of the label was still in the fructose moiety indicating uptake without hydrolysis. An advantage of this system is contrast to the work of Shannon is that Jenner was able to use an in vitro system and thus exercise more control over the uptake experiments.

After removal of the inhibitor from the endosperm cells, the next series of events is the sequential conversion of sucrose into starch. The first enzyme, for which genetic data are available and that is considered to be involved in the conversion of sucrose to starch, is sucrose synthetase which catalyzes the reaction:



This enzyme is thought to be involved in the initial breakdown of sucrose for several reasons.

First, the finding that the starch mutant physalis-1 (gh1) (Cheney & Nelson 1971) has low levels of sucrose synthetase is taken as evidence that this enzyme is important in starch synthesis. Secondly, Tsai, Salasniemi and Nelson (1970) and Barker (1971) have shown that the activity of sucrose synthetase in the maize endosperm coincides with the time of rapid starch synthesis. In contrast, activity of invertase peaked before the time of rapid starch synthesis. In growing points taken fromay 1969), rice glumes (Pares et al. 1970) and barley glumes (Barker and Duffus 1971) the level of sucrose synthetase is much greater than the level of invertase during the period of active starch synthesis.

Sucrose synthetase has been isolated from several sources. Sucrose synthetase is a tetramer with a molecular weight estimated to be from 290,000 in potato (Fremley 1969), to 400,000 in rice (Hosura and Akazawa 1972) and bean (Chenier 1973a). It has been reported to behave as if it were substrate bound in bean (Chenier and Allersbach 1970) and has been localized in the cytoplasm of onion bean endosperm (Nishikawa and Bevers 1971). Little is known about its regulation although it has been shown to be affected by sucrose in bean (Holmer 1972b).

Of particular interest has been the question of the specific role of sucrose synthetase. The reaction catalyzed by sucrose synthetase is easily reversible so that the role of sucrose synthetase could be in the formation or degradation of sucrose. The synthetic and degradative functions of the enzyme have different pH optima in rice (Hosura and Akazawa 1972), sorghum (Karna and Bhatia 1966), potato (Fremley 1969) and maize (Chenier & Boland 1970) which may suggest a control of activity by pH.

Evidence suggests that the function of sucrose synthetase is in the degradation of sucrose to glucose. Chenier (1973) found extracellular complementation in *gh1* mutants that lead to a wild type phenotype. Analysis of these alleles revealed that one allele, in a homozygous

condition, had 80% of the wild type activity based in the synthetic direction but only 4.5% in the cleavage direction (Gibney and Selman 1979). When wild type levels of starch were obtained by intercaline complementation, amylase activity in the synthetic direction decreased slightly whereas the activity in the direction of amaran cleavage doubled in comparison to that found in the wildtype when homozygous. These data indicate that the role of amaran synthetase is in the degradation and not synthesis of amaran.

Other evidence also points to the function of amaran synthetase in the breakdown of amaran. Penney (1969) has reported that the cytoplasmic pH favors amaran degradation in potato. The concentration of hexose monophosphate falls during the period of rapid starch synthesis in pea which has been suggested to favor the breakdown of amaran (Harris and Turner 1967). In the pea epilept, the area which is characterized by high levels of amaran synthetase also has higher levels of fructose which may be expected if breakdown is favored (Koskikallio et al. 1976).

The next enzyme that is considered to be involved in starch synthesis, based on genetic evidence, is ADP-*glucose* pyrophosphorylase which catalyzes the reaction:



Teal and Nelson (1968) and Dickinson and Penlee (1969b) showed that the starch deficient mutant starchless-2 (ss2), was deficient in ADPG pyrophosphorylase indicating that ADPG pyrophosphorylase is required for normal starch synthesis.

The G-1-P is thought to arise from the conversion of ADPG into G-1-P and GMP by ADPG pyrophosphorylase. There is no genetic evidence for the involvement of ADPG pyrophosphorylase but its involvement has been proposed by Teal, Schenkel and Nelson (1970) and Teal (1971).

The activity of ADPG pyrophosphorylase coincides with the time of maximum starch synthesis in maize 1880s at 41. 1971. Teal, Schenkel and Nelson 1970 which indicates an involvement in starch synthesis. The activity of ADPG pyrophosphorylase also is correlated with starch synthesis in potato (Barker, Marples and Evans 1971, Swedlow 1971, Barnes and Harschler 1968), wheat (Scott and Turner 1969), pea (Turner 1969) and barley (Barker and Jeffes 1971). Bessie and Lebedev (1961) found that ADPG, in comparison to ADP, was the substrate for soluble starch synthetase suggesting that the production of ADPG was needed for starch synthesis. The only substrate for soluble starch synthetase in maize is ADPG (Barker and Swedlow 1971).

ADPG pyrophosphorylase, an allosteric enzyme, is considered to be regulatory in the synthesis of starch in chloroplast and possibly in storage tissue (Furman 1970), Ghosh and Furman 1966, Palmer and Furman 1973, Samad and Furman 1967, Herson and Shultz 1980). The intracellular localization of ADPG pyrophosphorylase is in the chloroplast of leaf tissue and algae (Herson, Harker and Montaguham 1979, Montaguham and Harker 1980).

An examination of ADPG pyrophosphorylase in tobacco, rice, sorghum, barley, maize, bean and kidney bean revealed that all had similar allosteric properties (Samad et al. 1980). All were activated by 2-PGA and inhibited by inorganic phosphate. The inhibition by Pi is reversible by 2-PGA. The activity of ADPG pyrophosphorylase in maize is also modulated by 2-PGA and Pi (Furman, Samad and Sebrer 1971, Dickinson and Furman 1981).

The *shg* gene is considered to be the structural gene for ADPG pyrophosphorylase in maize (Samad and Wilson 1975, 1978, Samad, Tomaski & Moss 1980) based on dosage effect and enzyme stability. Recently, Tomaski and Samad (in press) showed that revertant alleles of *shg* conditioned pyrophosphorylase with different allosteric properties.

The final reaction in the conversion of sucrose into starch is the transfer of glucose to a glucose primer by the action of starch synthase:

ADP + Phosphoryl → ADP + P_i

This reaction is thought to be carried out by two glucose synthesizing enzymes: soluble and starch granule bound starch synthetase. Nelson and Rice (1971) and Nelson and Deal (1974) showed that the starch granule bound starch synthetase was lacking in the mutant ggg (ggg). Similar results were obtained for ggg rice (Iwata et al., 1970).

The gg mutation does not exude a loss of starch but rather an alteration in the normal starch composition. In gg, the level of amylopectin is increased whereas amylose is lacking. Without the bound starch synthetase wild type levels of starch are still maintained.

Soluble starch synthetase is specific for ADP as seen (Hahn, Barker and Rice 1971), Nyberg and Jon (1974), Kowalski and Jordan (1961). In potato (Barker, Olson and Price 1972) and maize (Barker and Jordan 1974) soluble starch synthetase was reported to support unprimed glucose synthesis.

There is evidence that soluble starch synthetase may play the major role in starch synthesis. In soybean, Murata and Akazawa (1964) showed that [¹⁴C] ADP was transferred to starch more effectively than [¹⁴C] UDP. Soluble starch synthetase has been correlated with the time of rapid starch synthesis in rice (Iwata et al., 1971).

Baxter and Walton (1971) found that the activity of ADPG dependent starch synthetase was correlated with the time of rapid starch synthesis in barley. The isolation of the sh2 mutants, which are deficient in the production of ADPG also points to the role of soluble starch synthetase. This would be expected if glucose was added to starch through conversion of ADPG by soluble starch synthetase.

Based primarily on genetic evidence, as reviewed above, starch synthesis is thought to occur as presented in the upper portion of Figure 1. Yet for this pathway, only sucrose synthetase and ADPG pyrophosphorylase seem to be vital for starch synthesis, based on the isolation of genetic mutants. Starch deficient mutants that lack both pyrophosphorylase or soluble starch synthetase had not been isolated. It is possible however, that mutants for both pyrophosphorylase or soluble starch synthetase are lethal and thus cannot be isolated. However, all mutants that have been isolated exhibited a low level of enzyme activity suggesting that the complete absence of an enzyme activity is lethal. By the same logic, mutants of the other enzymes should exist.

Other pathways have been proposed which are based on physiological evidence. From the distribution of metabolites in isolated organelles, Liu and Shennan (1971b) proposed that carbon flows through 1-PPA and that as illustrated in the bottom portion of Figure 1.

A potential technique for examining starch synthesis in the use of in vitro tissue culture systems. Such systems would be open to manipulation and could provide information about starch synthesis. For tissue culture systems to be useful in metabolic examinations of starch synthesis, they must reflect in vivo metabolism. Tissue specific enzymes important to starch synthesis must be expressed.

Shannon and Leroy (1971), reportedly established tissue cultures of maize endosperm for analysis of starch synthesis. Chu and Shannon (1975) found that supplementing the growth medium with sucrose led to starch accumulation in the endosperm cells. However, enzyme content and total starch content of the cells were low in comparison to intact kernels. From these data they suggest that the cultured cells did not develop all of the enzymes necessary for normal starch synthesis.

Freeling, Manderson and Cheng (1978) found differential expression of AMR in callus tissues derived from immature maize embryos. Again, this suggests that specific gene expression may not occur in culture or suspension tissue culture systems.

Recently, Sanjivkumar (1979) has succeeded in growing intact maize ovules to maturity in culture. Clones of tissues, consisting of kernels and supportive tissue, were

removed from the ear and placed in culture where they would develop to maturity. Although the presence of specific enzymes was not determined, the cultured kernels metabolized labeled amino acids (Hempelbach, personal communication).

The technique of in vitro kernel development may be useful in examining starch synthesis in the maize endosperm as well as studies of seed development. While the kernel blocks are grown in vitro, the kernels are intact. This may maintain the tissue specific expression of enzymes in the endosperm tissue and thus, overcome the problems of gene expression found with culture and suspension tissue culture systems. More importantly, this system may offer a unique opportunity to study starch synthesis under controlled conditions.

For in vitro kernel development to be useful in the examination of starch synthesis and seed development it must reflect starch synthesis as it occurs in vivo. The primary objective of this investigation was to examine development of wild type, sh1 and sh2 kernels grown in vitro to determine if growth in culture mimics growth in vivo.

After determining that development in culture was comparable to growth in vivo, in vitro kernel development was utilized to investigate carbon metabolism in the maize

mediums. Kanamycin was grown on different carbon sources to determine if kanamycin would develop an different carbon sources and if so, if growth in different carbon sources would affect starch synthesis and thus be useful for analysis of starch biosynthesis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Biological Materials

Wild type maize as well as the mutants shrunken-1 (sh1) and shrunken-2 (sh2) were analyzed. Normal maize was P3 progeny of W66A x 1815. The shrunken-1 allele, 1983, having approximately 1/4 of the wild type level of enzyme synthesis for both the starch and epimerase reactions was provided by R. Chourey. The shrunken-2 material, having approximately 1/4 of the wild type level of ADPG pyrophosphatase, was the commercial cultivar "Florida Stay Green". Plants were grown at the horticulture unit in Gainesville as in a greenhouse.

Developmental Stages

The first series of experiments was devoted to examining development of endosperm (starch) using normal

subjective methods. These observations were made in an effort to quantify development of embryonic growth in culture.

In the initial experiments, seeds were harvested 24pp and placed in culture using the techniques developed by Gengenbach (1977) as described below. After 8 days in culture the kernel blocks were scored to determine the percentage fertilization which was based on kernel enlargement.

These blocks were visually scored at 5 day intervals for growth and development through 24pp. Some of the kernels were removed from culture at 3 day intervals and examined with the aid of a dissecting microscope to determine their stage of development.

After 24pp the remaining kernel blocks were removed and air dried for 1 week. These were then examined to determine developmental activity and the total percentage of development as defined by the percentage of fertilized kernels that reached maturity. In this case, a kernel was considered to have reached maturity if it exhibited growth in culture and, upon drying, did not have any degree of other external abnormalities.

Experiment of 12 Week Development

The next series of experiments were designed to illustrate the percentage of kernels that could be classified

as normal at the end of 18dpp. In the first experiment, the time that the kernel blocks were placed in culture after pollination was varied from 1dpp to 7dpp. Again with a 18dpp weight was used. After 10 days in culture they were removed and air dried for 1 week. As in the previous experiment the percentage of fertilization was noted on kernel enlargement at 18dpp. After air drying the kernels were scored for development.

Other procedures were examined in an effort to improve development in culture. Results indicate that neither of the procedures that involved surgically removing some of the kernels was effective in increasing lg yling development. In one experiment the kernel blocks were placed in culture and allowed to develop until 18dpp. The petri dishes were then opened and every other developing kernel was sacrificed by placing the kernel with a scalpel. The remainder of the kernels were then placed in culture and allowed to develop until 18dpp. Observations were made every 5 days until the seeds were mature. At this time the percent development was determined as described above.

Another experiment similar to the one above was performed in an effort to improve lg yling development. Ovaries were placed in culture as described and allowed to develop until 18dpp. The kernel blocks were then removed

from culture and all but 1 of the developing ovaries were removed for each kernel block with the aid of a scalpel. The kernel blocks were returned to culture and allowed to mature.

Kernel Culture Procedure

After harvest, the ears were transported to the laboratory and held at 4 C. All ears were placed in culture within 4 hours of harvest, although it was determined that ears could be stored for 24 hr without damage. Immediately before placement in culture, the outer husks of the ears were removed and the inner husks were sprayed with 70% ethyl alcohol and flamed. All manipulation operations were carried out under aseptic conditions. The inner husks were removed and the ear was divided lengthwise into 3 or 4 segments. Blocks of kernels approximately 4 rows wide and 4 to 6 kernels long were removed from each segment with the aid of a scalpel. The outer 2 rows of kernels were removed from each segment and the cob tissue was trimmed to a flat base with tapered sides. The resultant kernel blocks consisted of 11 to 24 kernels supported on a 4 to 6 mm thick piece of cob tissue.

Culture Medium

Kernal blocks were placed in a Mannitube and Sheng medium as modified by Denkerbach (1977) and as described here. Sugar concentrations were 15% g/l of sucrose, glucose or fructose. For the combination glucose and fructose treatment 75 g/l of each sugar was used. The medium was filter sterilized or sterile sugars were added after the medium, since sugars, was autoclaved.

The medium was supplemented with one mg/l 1,4-dichlorophenoxypyruvic acid and one g/l of cyste hydrolyzate. Ten milligrams/liter of streptomycin sulfate was added to control bacterial contamination. Ten to 4 kernal blocks were placed in each 90mm petri dish containing 50 ml of culture medium. All cultures were given at 24 °C in darkness.

Germinating Measurements of Kernal Sizes in Culture

Kernels of the three genotypes were grown in culture with sucrose, glucose, fructose or glucose plus fructose as the carbon source. After 12 days in culture, kernels showed to be mature were removed, air dried for at least 2 weeks, and were used to measure germination.

For determination of germination, the seeds were placed between sheets of moist blotting paper and germinated in the dark at 20 C for 1 week. Total germination was the percentage of seeds that had germinated after 1 week. Germination was defined as radicle emergence.

Another parameter measured was the germination rate index which relates the percentage of germination to the germination rate by the following formula (Schmalz & Goldberg 1931):

$$GRI = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{X} \quad (2)$$

x_i = The number of seeds that germinated on day i .

n = Day that germination was measured on.

X = Total days of germination test.

X = Sum of all seeds that germinated during test.

Root and shoot lengths were also measured. Seedlings were removed after the 7 day germination test. Root length and shoot length were measured to the nearest half millimeter.

Development of Enzymatic Assay Procedure

In an effort to maintain activity of mucosa epithelium, 3H-glucose pyrophosphorylase and starch synthetase from green, normal maize was used in a series of extraction and assay procedures.

Normal maize endosperm, 100g., were ground 1:1 (w/v) in a chilled mortar with either a 0.04M TRIS-maleate buffer (pH 7.4), 0.1M potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.1) containing 0.01M EDTA and 0.005M DSA, or 0.1M potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4).

After grinding, the homogenate was centrifuged at 14,000g for 20 min. Aliquots of the supernatant were assayed for activity of the 3 enzymes using standard reaction mixtures.

In other experiments the supernatants were dialyzed overnight against either 0.1M TRIS-maleate buffer (pH 7.4), 0.1M KPO4 buffer (pH 7.1) containing 0.005M EDTA or 0.05M potassium phosphate (pH 7.1). Activity of the 3 enzymes was determined after dialysis.

In other experiments the supernatants from the initial centrifugation were salt precipitated by addition of an equal volume of saturated ammonium sulfate (27gm/100ml). After storage at 4 C for 1 hr., the enzyme preparations

were centrifuged at 27,000g for 15 min. The pellet was resuspended in one-half the original volume in one of the 3 dialysis buffers and dialyzed overnight against that buffer. Aliquots were then used for activity measurements of the 3 enzymes. All combinations of buffers were examined to optimize the extraction procedure for maximum enzyme activity.

From these experiments it was determined that the optimum method was to extract in 0.01M Tris-maleate buffer pH 7.0. ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase was assayed after the initial centrifugation. Glucose synthetase and starch synthetase were assayed after salt fractionation and overnight dialysis against the 0.01M Tris-maleate buffer.

Enzyme Extraction Procedure

After determination of the optimum procedure for enzyme recovery, methods were developed to recover sugars and starch from the enzyme preparations. This extraction procedure is summarized in Figure 1.

Young tubers were removed from the seed pieces and the endosperms were separated from the tubers and perisperm. The endosperms were ground 1-1 CM/V in chilled 0.01M Tris-maleate buffer pH7.0. The homogenate was centrifuged at 14,000g for 15 min. The supernatant

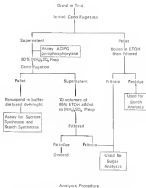


FIGURE 2- Flow chart for isolation of carboxym, carboxyl and alcohol from unknowns (Figure 2).

contained the 3 enzymes as well as some of the soluble sugars. The pellet, containing the starch and some of the soluble sugars, was saved for later extraction. An aliquot of the crude supernatant was removed, diluted 1:3 with water and immediately used for determination of ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase activity.

To separate the soluble enzymes from the soluble sugars, an equal volume of saturated ammonium sulfate was added to the crude supernatant. After incubation in ice for 1 hr., the solution was centrifuged at 27,000g for 15 min. The pellet containing the enzymes was resuspended in one-half the original volume of the extraction buffer and dialyzed overnight against buffer. This partially purified enzyme preparation was used for assays of sucrose synthetase and starch synthetase activities.

To the supernatant from the salt fractionation, which contained the soluble sugars, 18 volumes of 95% ethyl alcohol was added to precipitate the ammonium sulfate. This was filtered through 40 Whatman filter paper and the filtrate, containing the soluble sugars saved. The residue was discarded.

The starch containing pellet from the initial centrifugation was boiled in 18 volumes of 95% ethyl alcohol for 30 min. After filtration through Whatman 41 filter paper the filtrate, which contained the ethyl

soluble volatile fraction, was pooled with the other volatile sugar fraction and used in the sugar analysis. The residue, which contained the starch, was dried in a 43 ° oven and stored in a desiccator until analyzed.

The validity of the common extraction procedure for accurate measurements of mycose and mygide was examined by comparing results from the common extraction technique with results obtained by using optimized extraction methods for each component. Also, radiolabeled mycose was added to the initial extract and recovery of the mycose at each step of the extraction procedure was determined. Results from these comparisons support the validity of the common extraction method.

Enzyme Assays

a. Enzyme synthesis UDP-glucose: D-fructose 3-glucosyltransferase, E.C.2.6.1.111 was assayed by the method of Shewsey and Nelson (1979). Ten microliters of the dialyzed, enzyme preparation were added to the various substrate reaction mixture which consisted of 40 μ moles of pipette-stock buffer (pH 7.0), 2 μ moles magnesium sulfate, 10 μ moles of fructose and 1 μ moles of UDP-glucose in a total volume of 0.1 ml. Control tubes lacked UDP-glucose.

After incubation at 37 C for 15 min, 2.5 ml of 10% HCl was added to terminate the reaction. The reaction mixtures were then boiled in a water bath for 15 min to destroy the residual fructose.

Sucrose formed was measured using the Amadori method by adding 2 ml of 0.1% ninhydrin reagent and 4 ml of 95% HCl to the reaction mixtures. The tubes were placed in a water bath at 80 C for 5 min. The tubes were then removed and cooled to room temperature under a stream of water. Absorbance was measured at 440nm with a Beckman DU spectrophotometer.

To examine the reliability of the Amadori method for sucrose determination, some samples of known sucrose concentration were analyzed by both the Amadori method and gas-liquid chromatography. Results indicate that the Amadori method gives an accurate indication of sucrose concentration.

B. α D-glucose 6-phosphorylase (α D-6-Glucose 1-phosphate adenylyltransferase, E.C. 2.7.7.17) was assayed by the formation of α D- 14 C glucose from [14 C] glucose-1-phosphate using a modification of the method of Dickinson and Peckin (1968) as described by Francis, Tombsell and Ross (1969).

The substrates of the crude enzyme preparation were diluted 5 fold with distilled water immediately before

assaying. The reaction mixture consisted of 8.8 moles of HEPES buffer (pH 8.0), 2 moles of magnesium chloride, 20 mg of BSA (bovine serum albumin), 0.2 moles ATP, 2 moles 3-TPA, 0.2 moles $m\text{-}p\text{-}^{14}\text{C}$ glucose-1-phosphate, and 10 ml of the diluted crude enzyme preparation in a final volume of 20 ml. Controls lacked ATP.

After incubation for 15 min at 37°C the tubes were boiled in a water bath for 1 min to terminate the reaction. After cooling to room temperature 1.25 units of bacterial alkaline phosphatase was added to each tube to cleave the unreacted glucose-1-phosphate. The tubes were incubated for one hr at 37°C.

Twenty microliters of the reaction mixture was spotted on What filter disks. After 3, 10 min washes in distilled water the disks were dried and monitored for radioactivity by scintillation spectrometry.

α Soluble starch synthetase isolate

NDP-glucose-starch glucosyltransferase (E.C.2.4.1.1) was assayed by incorporation of $[^{14}\text{C}]$ glucose from NDP- $[^{14}\text{C}]$ glucose (discussed below) into amylopectin by a modification of the methods of Babas et. al. (1971), Tsai, Galavini and Wilson (1971) and Baister and Dowdson (1971). The reaction mixture consisted of 12 moles HEPES buffer (pH 7.5), 8.5 moles NDP- $[^{14}\text{C}]$ glucose (44,000cpm), 0.5 moles BSA, 5 mg of amylopectin and 10 ml of the partially

purified amylose preparation to a final volume of 100 ml. CONTROLS lacked amylopectin. The reaction was carried out for 30 min. at 25 C.

The reaction was terminated and the amylopectin solubilized by the addition of 1 ml of 0.1N NaOH. Methanol was added to a final concentration of 75%. The starch was pelleted by centrifugation at 10,000g and washed 3 times by NaOH solubilization followed by methanol precipitation and centrifugation. After the third wash the starch pellet was solubilized in 0.2 ml of 0.1N NaOH followed by adding 1 ml of methanol to suspend the starch.

The starch suspension was placed on glassine filter disk and started with 10 ml of methanol. After drying the disk was monitored for radioactivity by scintillation spectrometry.

4. Invertase (α -D-fructofuranosidase fructohydrolase, E.C. 3.2.1.26) was assayed by the methods of Dapson and Wilson (1971). Suspensions were ground 1:1 (W/V) in 0.05 M Tris-maleate buffer (pH 8.0) followed by centrifugation at 25,000g for 10 min. The supernatant was dialyzed overnight against 1 L of 0.01 Tris-maleate (pH 7.0) containing 1mM dithionite(S),

The reaction mixture contained 0.1 ml of 0.01 M sucrose, 0.05 ml of 0.1 M sodium acetate buffer (pH 5.0) and 1 to 10 ml of enzyme solution plus water to a final volume of 0.175 ml. Incubation times were 5 to 25 min.

To this solution the reagents, 5.5 ml. of Wilson's reagent (1944) was added followed by heating at 90 C for 15 min. The mixture was cooled and 5.5 ml. of arsenomolybdate reagent was added. Absorbance was read at 515m.

Preparation of [^{14}C] ADP

ADP- ^{14}C glucose was prepared by a modification of the methods of Rodan and Rosenberg (1971). Four micromoles of a uniformly labelled [^{14}C] glucose-1-phosphate solution (215 mCi/mole) were evaporated to dryness under a stream of air. One hundred microliters of the standard ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase reaction mixture minus unlabeled glucose-1-phosphate were added. Twenty microliters of a highly purified preparation of ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase, a gift from Dr. Glen Weiner, were added and the mixture was incubated at 37 C for 1 hr. The reaction was terminated by boiling for 1 min. followed by treatment with alkaline phosphatase as described above.

The reaction mixture was concentrated under a stream of air then size-exposed onto Whatman 31 paper. Authentic samples of ADP-glucose were spotted on both sides of the stained reaction mixture. The mixture was chromatographed (ascending) for 24 hr. in a solvent system consisting of

85% ethanol + 15 ammonium acetate (3-5) pH 5.5. After chromatography, the antibiotic ADF-glucosyl spots were located with a UV lamp and the area between the spots was removed. This strip was washed in 50% ac of absolute ethanol for 1 hour followed by drying. The ADF- ^{14}C glucoside was eluted from the paper with distilled water.

Starch Determinations

The dried starch residue isolated after treatment with hot ethyl alcohol was ground to a fine powder. One hundred milligrams of the powder was solubilized in 10 ml of 0.5N NaOH, followed by addition of 70 ml of distilled water. The pH was adjusted to 4.5 with acetic acid and the volume adjusted to 100 ml. Ten milligrams of amyloglucosidase were added to 1 ml of the solution followed by incubation at 35 °C for 1 hr. Starch was then measured as free glucose using a Biliro Springs Instrument model 17 Glucose Oxidase Analyzer.

For measurement of starch in dried media the media were ground in 5 volumes of 85% ethyl alcohol. After filtering through Whatman 54 paper the residue was dried. One hundred milligrams were then used for measurement of starch as described above.

Isolation of Individualized Kernels into Whole Kernels

Kernel blocks of normal, sh2 and sh1 were placed in culture as previously described. At 20 days, the kernel blocks were removed and divided to produce pairs of kernels with the seed husks still attached to the kernel base.

The developing kernels were transferred into fresh culture medium containing [14 C] sugar (sucrose). The [14 C] sugar (glucose or sucrose, 1 μ Ci/kernel, specific activity = 313 mCi/mole and 497 mCi/mole respectively) was located in depressions made in the agar medium. Kernels were supplied with the labeled sugar on which they were grown. For determination of sucrose hydrolysis, kernels grown on glucose were supplied with labeled sucrose.

After a 1 hr. pulse in the [14 C] sugar, the kernels were transferred back into the original medium for the chase period. Samples were taken immediately after removal from the [14 C] sugar and at hour intervals through 4 hr. The embryos and pericarp were removed and the endosperm were freeze dried and assayed.

The endosperm were ground 1:1 (w/v) in 95% ethyl alcohol followed by centrifugation at 34,000g for 20 min. The supernatant was concentrated under a stream of air and lyophilized. Four hundred microliters of ethyl alcohol

was added to each sample and 50 µl of the solution was spotted on Whatman F1 paper. Chromatography (descending) was carried out in a solvent system consisting of butanol : acetic acid : water (15:1:1) for 64 hr. The chromatographs were run along 1 cm squares, placed in desiccation trays and monitored for radioactivity by scintillation spectrometry.

Gas-Liquid Chromatography

Sugars were quantified by gas-liquid chromatography using a modification of the methods of Ferguson, Robinson and Rhodes (1971). Ten microliters of the mixture sugar extract were placed in a vial and dried in an oven at 40 °C. Lipids were removed from the samples by addition of 1 ml of hexane and 1 ml of water for lipid-sugar partitioning. The samples were mixed and allowed to stand until the layers separated. The hexane phase, containing the lipids was removed and the aqueous phase dried in an oven at 40 °C. Analysis of this technique revealed that no sugars were lost into the hexane phase during partitioning.

Calves of the dried sugars were made by addition of 0.1 ml of 10% calve-internal standard (Mergant Chemical Co.) which contained 10 µg/ml of hydroxylamine hydrochloride and 4 µg/ml of phenyl-β-D-glucopyranoside in

pyridine. The vials were incubated for 20 min. at 70 °C then cooled to room temperature before aliquation.

The nucleosides were aliquated by the addition of 0.1 ml of N-tetramethylsilyltriethylammonium followed by vortexing the sample for 10 sec. The vials were incubated for 30 min at room temperature before injection. One microliter of the aliquated sample was injected into a Hewlett Packard 5710A gas chromatograph programmed at 150 °C for 3 min, followed by a linear rise in temperature to 300 °C at a rate of 1 °C/min. Injection port temperature was 180 °C and the detector temperature was 300 °C. The column was stainless steel (0.25" I.D.) packed with 10 OV-17 on Chromosorb WHP; 80/100 Mesh (Alltech). The carrier gas was helium at 40 ml/min.

Ion-Exchange Chromatography

Ion-exchange chromatography was performed on the labeled nucleoside samples isolated by descending paper chromatography in an attempt to identify the sugars. The methods of Bandrup and Bandrup (1961) were used. The papers containing the nucleoside sugars were removed from the acetic acid buffer, dipped twice in toluene and dried. The nucleoside sugars were eluted with water and concentrated to a volume of approximately 50 µl. The nucleoside sugars were applied to the P.E.C. plates and

developed as above. After ion-exchange chromatography the areas corresponding to the nucleotide sugars were counted and radioactivity was determined by scintillation spectrometry.

Hydrolysis of [14 C] Labeled Sugars

The [14 C] labeled sucrose isolated by descending paper chromatography was hydrolyzed with invertase (Sigma). The papers corresponding to the labeled sucrose were removed from the scintillation field, dipped twice in toluene and air dried. The sucrose was eluted from the paper with water and lyophilized.

One milliliter of an acetate buffer (pH 4.5) containing 200 units of invertase was added to the lyophilized sugar and incubated for 3 hr. at 35 C. The reaction mixture was lyophilized and then dissolved in 100 μ l of 75% ethyl alcohol and subjected to descending paper chromatography as described previously. The areas corresponding to sucrose, glucose and fructose were removed and monitored for radioactivity.

Methods

Enlargement In Vitro

In the first experiment, blocks of wild type kernels were placed in culture at 10ppm. After 15 days in culture the percentage of fertilization was inferred from the percentage of kernel enlargement. Some kernels were then allowed to develop to maturity while others were removed at 5 day intervals and examined with the aid of a dissecting microscope.

Approximately 60% of the kernels appeared to be fertilized based on kernel enlargement at 10ppm (Figure 3). The ovules that had not enlarged were necrotic or were quite small and exhibited no further signs of development.

Approximately 10% of the kernels that were fertilized developed to maturity and contained both embryos and endosperm (Figure 4). An additional 10% exhibited some growth but growth was terminated before 30 days in culture



Figure 3. Block of wild type kernels at 20dpp. Most of the kernels have enlarged indicating fertilization. Caryopsis that was not fertilized (arrow) exhibit no growth.



Figure 4. Block of 252 kernels at maturity (1944). The normal kernels are large and have started to shrivel due to loss of water. The Atypical kernels (growth) are smaller and appear more shrunken.

(Figure 4). These kernels were distinguishable from normal kernels by their small size due to degenerated development (Figure 4).

The stippled kernels included those that had embryos but little endosperm and kernels that had no discernible embryo but did possess a poorly developed but identifiable endosperm. In some instances the endosperms of these seeds were larger than normal but were filled with fluid and, when opened and examined with a dissecting microscope, did not appear to be cellular. The majority of the kernels that exhibited ovule enlargement but did not develop to maturity exhibited arrested development before 18 days post pollination and by 28 days were collapsed and extremely small. The normal kernels would germinate and develop normal cotyledons and root systems when placed under standard germination conditions whereas stippled kernels failed to germinate although they did imbibe water.

Improvement of In Vitro Development

After the initial analysis of development in culture, experiments were performed to improve the percentage of kernels that could be classified as normal after 18 days in culture. In the first experiment the time between pollination and harvest was increased. Results of this

experiment (Figure 5) revealed that increasing the time between pollination and harvest limited the number of kernels that were normal. While there was little increase in the number of atypical kernels, the number of normal kernels tripled.

From the data collected, it would appear that the best time to place the fertilized ovules in culture is 1dpp as (Figure 5). Oule enlargement had occurred at 1dpp making it possible to determine which of the carpogons had been fertilized. This was an important factor when considering the number of kernel blocks needed for the experiments. It was difficult to distinguish between fertilized and unfertilized ovules at 1dpp and 3dpp.

Also, 7% of the kernels that were fertilized were normal after 18 days in culture (Figure 5). Even though there was a slight increase in development from 8dpp to 18dpp the older kernels were not used because of the difficulty in distinguishing the kernel blocks from the callus tissue.

Development of Kernels After 18 Days in Culture

Wild type kernels and gln and gln kernels were placed in culture at 8dpp in media containing sucrose as the carbon source. Kernels were removed at 8 day intervals,

sliced through the center, and examined with a dissecting microscope.

When the embryos were placed in culture, the endosperms were small and the nucellar tissue comprised the bulk of the tissue. The embryo at this time could not be found with a dissecting microscope although it was possible to tease out the endosperm tissue from the nucellar tissue.

At 18dpp the endosperm had displaced most of the nucellar tissue. At this time it was possible to remove part of the endosperm which contained the embryo and examine it with a compound microscope. The embryo was in the late globular stage in which the plumula-radicle axis had been established. In some instances the symmetry of the embryo could be established with the presence of plumula and radicle initials and early stages of scutellum formation.

The endosperm, at 18dpp, had almost totally displaced the nucellar tissue and the cells of the endosperm were considerably larger than at 15dpp. The embryo at 18dpp had a definite shape and the plumula and radicle were well established. The scutellum was also apparent.

Between 18dpp and 21dpp there was little change in the endosperm cells except for some cell enlargement and the obvious presence of starch granules. The embryo had

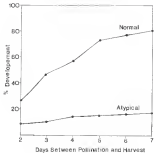


Figure 3. Effect of varying days between harvest and placing kernels in culture on kernel development.

undergoes the most radical changes with the appearance of leaf primordia and the appearance of the coleorrhiza. The size of the embryo increased from 240 μ to 254 μ .

At 280 μ the kernels began to lose moisture as was evident by the formation of a dent in the crown of the kernel. The endosperm was hard and the cells were filled with starch. There were several auxiliary leaves present in the embryo and a well defined coleorrhiza and radicle.

Through the initial stages of growth, development of the mutants was similar to that in normal. Differences became apparent around 28-300 μ and were only associated with the endosperm. Development of the embryo was similar in all 3 genotypes.

The gh1 and gh2 endosperms contained less starch at 250 μ in comparison to wild type. The endosperms of gh1 were filled with fluid and starch grains were not observed at 300 μ . There was starch present at 350 μ in gh1.

By 350 μ gh1 and gh2 kernels had lost moisture. The gh2 endosperms were beginning to collapse and there was little evidence of starch accumulation. The gh1 endosperms, at 380 μ , had not collapsed and starch was obvious.

There exist considerable differences between the gh1 and gh2 kernels at maturity. The gh1 endosperms had collapsed and there were obvious spaces between endosperms

liver and endosperm. Some starch was present in the gh1 kernels but it was low very in comparison to wild type and gh2. The gh1 kernels had a considerable amount of starch present at maturity though the level was much less than in normal. The starch was located in the periphery of the kernel and there was a cavity in the interior of the endosperm tissue.

Growth of Kernels on Several Carbon Sources

Kernels of all 3 genotypes were placed in culture at 50pp with sucrose, glucose, fructose or glucose plus fructose as the carbon source. At 50pp the kernels were removed and weighed to determine if seed weight would be affected by growth on the different sugars. The weights of the kernels are given in Table 1. Wild type kernels had the greatest average seed weight followed by gh1 and gh2 seeds.

Seeds of wild type maize grown in the presence of the different sugars had wild type phenotypes at maturity (Figure 4b). All kernels appeared to have a large amount of starch, based on visual observations. The kernels possessed a dotted cross which is characteristic of the wild type phenotype. Kernels that were grown with sucrose as the carbon source had a significantly greater weight



Figure 4. Wild type keratin grown on different media and in the field. From left to right, P-field grown, K-internal grown on sucrose, K-glucose, K-fructose, K-glucose + fructose.

than those seeds grown with any of the other carbon sources indicating that sucrose was the superior carbon source (Table 1).

Seeds of ghj grown in culture in the presence of the different carbon sources had their expected phenotype at maturity (Figure 7). Seeds of ghj grown on sucrose had a significantly greater weight than kernels grown on the other sugars indicating that, as in wild type, sucrose was the superior carbon source (Table 1).

At maturity, seeds of ghj grown in the different carbon sources had their characteristic phenotype in that they exhibited a concave crown (Figure 8). However, differences in sorting of the crown were observed and it was possible to visually separate seeds grown on sucrose and glucose. Nevertheless, all seeds had concave crowns and thus were classified as ghj. Unlike wild type and ghj kernels, ghj kernels grown on glucose had a significantly greater weight than seeds grown on the other carbon sources (Table 1). Reducing sugars appear to be a better carbon source for ghj in comparison to sucrose.

Germination and Growth of Kernels Grown in Culture

After weighing, seeds of the 3 genotypes were analyzed for germination rate, as defined by the germination rate



Figure 7. Ears of *zm* grown on different sugars and in the field. From left to right, F-field grown, D-fructose grown on sucrose, D-glucose, F-fructose, D-fructose + fructose.



Figure 8. Panicle of sorghum grown on different sugars and in the field. From left to right, P-field grown, D-sorbose grown on sorbose, D-glucose, D-fructose, D-galactose + D-arabinose.

Table 1. Weight of kernels grown on different sugar sources. Kernels were grown to maturity in culture, air dried, then weighed. Approximately 100 kernels of each genotype were weighed.

Phenotype	Sugar Source	Dry Weight g./kernel
wild type	Sucrose	.1114 ^a
	Glucose	.1076
	Fructose	.1146
	Galactose	.1106
<u>phospho-1</u>	Sucrose	.0916
	Glucose	.1214
	Fructose	.1076
	Galactose	.1116
<u>phospho-2</u>	Sucrose	.0814
	Glucose	.0916
	Fructose	.0816
	Galactose	.0916

^a Significance by Duncan's Multiple Range Test

index, and for total percentage of germination. The lengths of roots and shoots were also determined.

The germination parameters for wild type seeds are given in Table 1. Kernels grown on sucrose had a greater germination rate index (Table 2) and a greater total germination percentage than kernels grown on the other sugars. The next highest germination rate index and total germination were for seeds grown on glucose followed by seeds grown on glucose plus fructose. The lowest germination rate index and total germination were for kernels grown on fructose. Root and shoot lengths were similar for kernels grown in all carbon sources (Table 3).

The germination parameters for gh1 kernels are given in Table 2. As in wild type, gh1 kernels grown on sucrose had a greater germination rate index and percentage germination than did kernels grown on reducing sugars. The next greatest germination rate index and total germination were for kernels grown on glucose followed by kernels grown on glucose plus fructose and then fructose. The root and shoot lengths were similar for kernels grown in all sugars.

Germination parameters for gh2 are given in Table 2. In contrast to normal and gh1, kernels grown on glucose at the carbon source had the highest total germination percentage and the greatest germination rate index. Following kernels grown on glucose, the next highest

germination indices were for kernels grown on glucose plus fructose, then fructose. Kernels grown on sucrose had the lowest germination rate and the least germination rate index. As in wild type and ah2 there were no differences in shoot or root lengths of kernels grown on the different carbon sources.

Starch Content of Kernels Grown to Maturity in Culture

Analysis of germination indicated an association between seed germination and seed weight. In order to determine if seed weight was correlated with starch content, kernels of all 3 genotypes grown to maturity on the different sugars were evaluated for starch content. Results are given in Table 3. The same pattern for seed weight and germination measurements was also found for starch content.

Wild type kernels had the greatest starch content of the 3 genotypes assessed (Table 3). Kernels of wild type grown on sucrose had a higher starch content than did kernels grown on refining sugars (Table 3). The next highest starch content was found for kernels grown on glucose followed by glucose plus fructose, then fructose.

Kernels of ah2 had the least amount of starch of the 3 genotypes (Table 3). Kernels of ah2 grown on sucrose had a

Table 3. Starch Content of Astoria Barsole Sweet in Culture.

Genotype	Starch Source	Starch ^a
Wild Type	Barsole	81 ± 3.3
	Glucose	60 ± 2.8
	Fructose	60 ± 2.8
	Glucose	64 ± 3.5
<u>shrunk-1</u>	Barsole	40 ± 3.8
	Glucose	60 ± 3.4
	Fructose	41 ± 3.8
	Glucose	40 ± 3.5
<u>shrunk-2</u>	Barsole	33 ± 1.4
	Glucose	29 ± 3.0
	Fructose	23 ± 1.9
	Glucose	28 ± 3.3

^aPercent of Dry Weight

higher starch content than did kernels grown on the other sugars (Table 3). Kernels grown on glucose had the next highest starch content followed by kernels grown on glucose plus fructose than fructose.

As in seed weight and germination, 3b, Kernels grown on reducing sugars had a greater starch content than kernels grown on sucrose. Kernels grown on glucose had the greatest starch content (Table 3). This was followed by kernels grown on the other reducing sugars. Kernels grown on sucrose had the lowest starch content.

Differences in Developing Kernels Grown in Different Carbon Sources

The activity of mature apathetase, ADP-ATPase and starch synthetase were measured throughout development in kernels of the 3 genotypes grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose. Enzyme activity was examined in order to determine if the enzymes were present as kernels developed in culture, and if so, whether the sugar source effected enzymatic levels. Furthermore, this work would help determine if growth is cellwise since growth is ring. It was also of interest to determine if differences in enzyme activity could be correlated with the differences in seed weight found when kernels were grown on the different sugars.

In the mutants, succinate activity of the deficient enzyme was measured only at 100pp and 150pp (Table 4). The level of succinate synthetase in gh2 was approximately 14 of the activity found in wild type or gh1 endospores produced in glucose (Table 4). This is similar to the results obtained by Chaney and Nelson (1971) and Chaney (1973) for succinate synthetase activity in gh2, grown in glucose. Activity of succinate synthetase was similar in gh1 kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

The activity of ADPG pyrophosphorylase in gh2 was approximately 24 of the activity in wild type and gh1 endospores (Table 4); in agreement with results obtained by Korsch and Nelson (1971,1973) for gh1, grown in glucose. Activity was similar in kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

The specific activity of succinate synthetase in wild type and gh2 kernels grown on the different carbon sources is given in Figures 7 and 10. In general, the specific activities were similar in wild type and gh2 kernels. No activity was found at 100pp in either genotype. In general, the maximum activity occurred at 25 to 50pp. By 100pp the activity had declined considerably.

The activity of ADPG pyrophosphorylase in wild type and gh1 kernels that were grown on the different sugars are given in Figures 11 and 13. Both genotypes had similar

Table 4. Percentage of wild type levels of saccharase isomerase in *sh1* and activity of ADPG pyrophosphorylase in *sh2* kernels at 30 and 30dpp.

Genotype	Enzyme Measured	Activity ^a	
		30dpp	30dpp
<i>sh1</i>	saccharase isomerase	5.7%	5.31%
<i>sh2</i>	ADPG pyrophosphorylase	3.31%	3.54%

^aPercentage of wild type levels of enzymes at 30 and 30dpp.

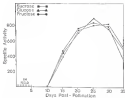


Figure 5: Specific Activity of sucrose synthase throughout development in endosperm of wild type kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

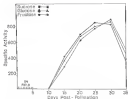


Figure 10. Specific Activity of sucrose synthetase throughout development in endosperms of 80% hatched corn on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

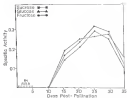


Figure 21. Specific Activity of ADP pyrophosphorylase throughout development in cells of wild type female bees grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

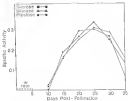


Figure 12. Specific Activity of ADPG pyrophosphorylase throughout development in endosperm of 501 corn silks grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

specific activities and activity profiles throughout development. Also, there were no differences in activity related to carbon source.

Activity of starch synthetase in wild type, shi and shi kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose are given in Figures 13, 14 and 15. Activity of starch synthetase was similar in all 3 genotypes. Range profiles were similar with maximum activity at 25 to 30°C.

Analysis of Sugars by Gas Chromatography

The levels of sucrose, glucose and fructose were measured throughout development in kernels of the 3 genotypes grown on the different sugars. This was done to determine if growth in shi was a reflection of what occurs in rrr and if there was an accumulation of sugars in the different mutants. Mutant phenotypes and the build up of sugars in the mutants grown in culture would be expected if growth in rrr mimic in shi growth.

It was possible to resolve the silylated sugar derivatives of sucrose, glucose and fructose by the use of gas chromatography. The retention times of the derivatives of sucrose, glucose and fructose were approximately 11.3 min., 4.8 min. and 3.1 min, respectively.

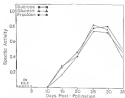


Figure 13. Specific Activity of starch synthetase throughout development in endosperms of wild type kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

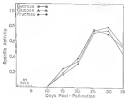


Figure 14. Specific Activity of starch epimerase throughout development in endosperms of *ab1* kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

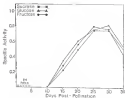


Figure 15. Specific Activity of starch synthetase throughout development in endosperm of *g21* kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose

The concentrations of sucrose in normal, gh1 and gh2 given on sucrose are given in Figures 16, 17 and 18. The sucrose level in wild type remained low throughout development (Figure 16) and peaked at 20-25dpp. Levels of fructose and glucose in wild type increased gradually through 15dpp and declined thereafter (Figure 18). The concentration of sucrose was greater than the combined concentration of fructose and glucose from 15dpp to maturity.

The concentration of sucrose in gh1 increased approximately threefold between 15dpp and 20dpp (Figure 17), and declined thereafter. The concentration of sucrose in gh1 from 15dpp to 25dpp was approximately 3 times greater than that found in normal. As in normal, there was little change in the concentrations of fructose or glucose through development (Figure 17). At later time examined, the concentration of sucrose in gh1 was greater than the concentration of fructose plus glucose. In general, the concentrations of glucose and fructose were greater in gh1 than in normal.

The concentration of sucrose in gh2 was greater than that in either of the other genotypes (Figure 18). Sucrose increased threefold from 15dpp to 25dpp and continued to increase to 30dpp. There was a slight decline in concentration from 25 to 30dpp. The concentrations of

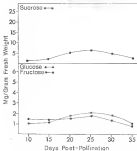


Figure 18: concentrations, in mg/gm fresh weight, of sucrose, fructose and glucose in endosperms throughout development in kernels of wild type grain at maturity.

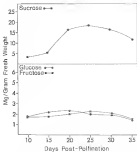


Figure 17. Concentrations, in mg/g fresh weight, of sucrose, fructose and glucose in anthers throughout development in buds of *populus* grown on sucrose.

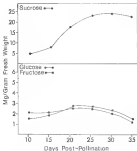


Figure 18. Concentrations, in mg/g fresh weight, of sucrose, glucose and fructose in endosperm throughout development in kernels of 362 green no. normal.

fructose and glucose increased from 15 to 24hpg and declined through 36hpg (Figure 18). The concentration of sucrose was greater at all time intervals than the concentration of glucose plus fructose.

The changes in sugar concentrations in the wild type and gk1 genotypes grown on sucrose are similar to results obtained by Cresser (1968), of kernels grown in vitro, in that there was an increase in the amount of sucrose in gk1 in comparison to wild type. The concentrations of sucrose at 24hpg in gk1 are also in agreement with results obtained by Chourey & Balazs (1971).

The concentrations of sucrose in kernels grown on glucose or fructose are given in Figures 19 and 20 for sucrose, 21 and 22 for gk1 and 23 and 24 for gk2.

When glucose was supplied, the level of glucose was approximately 2 to 3 times greater than that observed when sucrose was the carbon source (Figures 19,21,23). However, the concentration of fructose in kernels grown on glucose was reduced compared to those grown on sucrose. Kernels grown on glucose also had less sucrose than kernels grown on sucrose. The concentration of sucrose for all genotypes was approximately 50% to 60% the level found in kernels grown on sucrose from 24 to 36hpg. Interestingly, there was a buildup of sucrose in gk1 and gk2 similar to the buildup observed when sucrose was the carbon source.

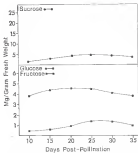


Figure 19. Concentrations, in mg/g fresh weight, of sucrose, fructose and glucose in endosperms throughout development in female of wild type grown on glucose.

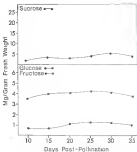


FIGURE 10. Concentrations, in mg/gm fresh weight, of sucrose, fructose and glucose in endosperm throughout development in kernels of wild type grown on fructose.

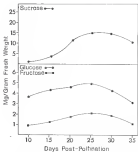


Figure 21. Concentrations, in mg/g fresh weight, of sucrose, fructose and glucose in endosperms throughout development in kernels of ghl grown on glucose.

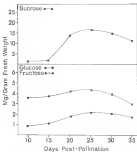


Figure 12: Concentration, in mg/g fresh weight, of sucrose, glucose and fructose in endosperm throughout development in kernels of *p61* grown on fructose.

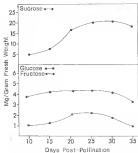


Figure 10. Concentration, in mg/g fresh weight, of sucrose, fructose and glucose in endosperm throughout development in kernels of 902 grown in glucose.

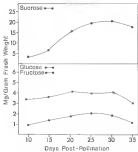


Figure 24. Concentrations, as mg/g fresh weight, of sucrose, fructose and glucose in endosperm throughout development in kernels of *jgg* grown as transverse.

Supplying fructose increased the amount of fructose approximately 2 times and reduced the concentration of glucose by half during the early time examined whereas the concentrations of glucose was equivalent to that found in kernels grown on sucrose in the later time intervals (Figure 28,29,34). As in the case of kernels grown on glucose, kernels grown on fructose had 10% to 20% less sucrose than when grown in sucrose.

Starch Content in Developing Kernels Grown in Different Carbon Sources.

The amount of starch in developing normal, sh1 and sh2 kernels grown in the presence of the different carbon sources was examined. Data from kernels grown on sucrose were used in analysis of in vivo development. These data were useful in determining how growth in culture versus growth and development in the field.

Determinations of starch content in developing kernels grown in the different carbon sources was done to determine if differences in carbon source would affect the production of starch in the endosperm. Previous results showed that starch content in mature kernels was altered when grown in the presence of the different carbon sources. Also, seed weight and germination parameters were altered. Analysis of developing kernels would determine when differences in starch become apparent during development.

Starch content of wild type kernels grown on the different sugars are given in Figure 25. There is little difference in the starch content at 15dpp and 18dpp of kernels grown on any of the carbon sources. From 20dpp to 23dpp, kernels grown on sucrose had more starch than kernels grown on reducing sugars. In agreement with previous data, kernels at 23dpp grown on sucrose had the greatest starch content followed by kernels grown on glucose and then kernels grown on fructose. Starch content in wild type kernels grown on all carbon sources was greater than the starch content of the other genotypes.

Starch levels of ggl kernels grown on the different sugars are given in Figure 26. As is normal, the starch contents are similar for all 3 carbon sources through 15dpp. From 20dpp to 23dpp kernels grown on glucose had the greatest starch level. At 23dpp kernels grown on glucose had the greatest starch level followed by kernels grown on fructose and then kernels grown on sucrose.

The starch levels of gld kernels grown on the different sugars are given in Figure 27. As in the other genotypes there was little difference in starch content through 15dpp. From 20dpp to 23dpp, kernels grown on sucrose had the greatest starch level though there was little difference in the amount of starch between all 3 sugar sources. The next greatest starch level was found in

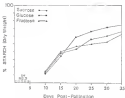


Figure 10. Starch content, in percent dry weight, of endosperms of wild type kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

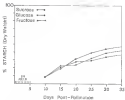


Figure 24. Starch content, in percent dry weight, of endosperms of 251 kernels grown on nectar. Glucose or fructose.

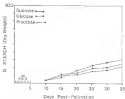


Figure 17 Starch content, in percent dry weight, of endosperms of A661 kernels grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose.

kernels grown on glucose followed by kernels grown on fructose. The amount of starch in sh2 kernels was less than in the other genotypes.

Uptake of ^{14}C labeled sucrose or glucose into kernels

^{14}C labeled sucrose or glucose was supplied to 100pp kernels of wild type, sh1 and sh2 grown in vivo, to determine the initial distribution of label in the endosperm tissues. Specifically, it was of interest to determine if sucrose was transported into the endosperm tissue or if it was hydrolyzed before entry into the endosperm tissue. These experiments were also used to determine the rate of uptake and conversion of the sugars.

Results obtained above (Figures 18-19) indicated that kernels grown on sucrose had greater sucrose in the endosperm tissue than did kernels grown on reducing sugars. Also, kernels grown on reducing sugars had increased levels of the sugar on which they were grown (Figures 18-19). By the use of radiolabeled sugars it is possible to determine the rate of transport of sugars into the endosperm tissue as well as metabolic conversions that may occur.

Analysis of extracts of kernels by descending paper chromatography revealed the presence of labeled compounds that co-chromatographed with sucrose, glucose and fructose.

labeled compounds also were found that chromatographed with nucleoside sugars as well as phosphorylated bases. Other labeled compounds were also observed but were not identified. Representative profiles of monitored chromatograms of all 3 genotypes are given in figures 10-12.

Approximately 95% of the label was found in sucrose at the earliest time period assayed (figures 14-16) in all 3 genotypes when the bacteria were fed sucrose. Recovery of labeled sucrose in the endospore tissue does not necessarily show that sucrose is transported into the endospore tissue. Since, as shown above, glucose can be used to synthesize sucrose in the endospore tissue, labeled sucrose could have been broken down before transport into the endospore tissue and then re-synthesized.

In an effort to examine whether sucrose is broken down during transport into the endospore, bacteria that were grown with glucose as the carbon source were supplied with labeled sucrose. After a 1 hr. pulse, the endospores were extracted and subjected to paper chromatography. The sucrose peak was isolated and hydrolyzed with bromelain. The resultant mixture was rechromatographed and the areas corresponding to glucose and fructose were measured and counted.

Figure 11. Representative profiles of [^{14}C] labeled compounds separated by descending paper chromatography over a 100 hour period from wild type bacteria after exposure to [^{14}C]-glucose. The glucose peak is at 20 cm, the glucose peak is at 48 cm and the fructose peak is at 46 cm. Inorganic glucose and fructose accounted for the majority of the label recovered. Additional peaks were found at 1 cm which corresponds to nucleotide sugars and at 3 cm which corresponds to phosphorylated biomass.

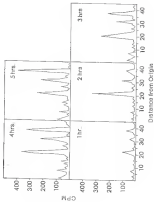


Figure 2b. Approximation profile of $[^{14}C]$ labeled compounds separated by ascending paper chromatography over a five hour period from wild type bacteria after exposure to $[^{14}C]$ -glucose. The glucose peak is at 32 cm, the glucose peak is at 31 cm and the fructose peak is at 34 cm. Isomers, glucose and fructose represented the majority of the labeled material. Additional peaks were found at 3 cm which corresponds to nucleotide sugars and at 7 cm which corresponds to phosphorylated bases.

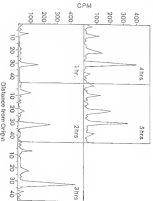


Figure 26. Representative profiles at $[^{14}C]$ labeled compounds separated by descending paper chromatography over a five hour period from pH 6 buffer after exposure to ^{14}C -urea. The main peak is at 12 cm, the glucose peak is at 31 cm and the fructose peak is at 38 cm. However, glucose and fructose accounted for the majority of the label, whereas additional peaks were found at 1 cm which corresponds to nucleotide sugars and at 7 cm which corresponds to phosphorylated urea.

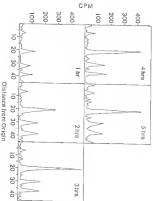


Figure 5). Representative profiles of [^{14}C] labeled compounds separated by descending paper chromatography over a 100 cm strip pulled from 500 kernels after exposure to [^{14}C]-glucose. The sucrose peak is at 22 cm, the glucose peak is at 38 cm and the fructose peak is at 34 cm. Barrenia, flavone and flavoneol were not detected for the majority of the labeled compounds. Additional peaks were found at 1 cm which corresponds to nucleoside triphosphate and at 7 cm which corresponds to phosphorylated lipids.

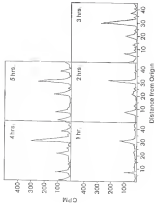


Figure 11. Representative profile of ^{14}C labeled compounds separated by descending paper chromatography over a 100 hour period from dig biomass after exposure to $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ -airflow. The main peak is at 12 cm, the glucose peak is at 22 cm and the fructose peak is at 24 cm. Unknown, glucose and fructose accounted for the majority of the label recovered. Additional peaks were found at 1 cm which corresponds to carbohydrate sugars and at 7 cm which corresponds to phosphorylated species.

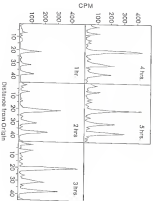
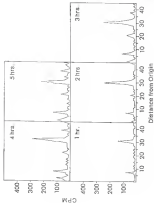


Figure 12. Approximative profile of ^{14}C labeled compounds separated by descending paper chromatography over a 1400 hour period from 200 kernels after exposure to ^{14}C -glucose. The maximum peak is at 12 cm, the glucose peak is at 12 cm and the fructose peak is at 10 cm. Sucrose, glucose and fructose accounted for the majority of the label recovered. Additional peaks were found at 1 cm which corresponds to nucleoside sugars and at 7 cm which corresponds to phosphorylated nucleoside.



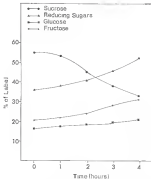


Figure 18. Percentage of ethanol-soluble, (^{14}C) labeled sucrose, glucose, fructose and total reducing sugars extracted from endosperms after a 4 hour period after exposure of wild type kernels to [^{14}C] sucrose. Kernels were exposed to the labeled sugar for 4 hr. The start of exposure to the label is -1 hour on graph and removal from the label is at time 2. The chase period was 4 hours.

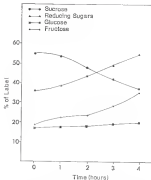


Figure 10. Percentages of ethanol-soluble, ^{14}C -labeled sucrose, glucose, fructose and total reducing sugars extracted from kidney cortex over a five hour period after exposure of the kidney to ^{14}C -sucrose. Kidneys were exposed to the labeled sugar for 1 hr. The start of exposure to the label is -1 hour on graph and removal from the label is at time 0. The chase period was 4 hours.

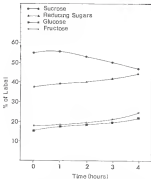


Figure 16. Percentage of ethanol soluble, ^{13}C labeled sucrose, glucose, fructose and total reducing sugars estimated from endospores over a five hour period after exposure of *gh* bacteria to ^{13}C sucrose. Bacteria were exposed to the labeled sugar for 1 hr. The start of exposure to the label is 0 hour on graph and removal from the label is at time 4. The chase period was 4 hours.

The ratio of glucose to fructose of the supplied labeled sucrose was 1.58 and the ratio of glucose to fructose of the samples extracted from the endosperm tissues after a 1 hr. exposure to the labeled sucrose was 1.84. If sucrose was hydrolyzed one would expect an alteration in the ratio of the labeled hexose fractions. Hydrolysis and resynthesis of sucrose would lower the ratio, since the hexoses were given in glucose, and thus resynthesized sucrose would contain greater amounts of cold glucose than fructose. These results indicate that at a minimum 50% of the supplied sucrose is transported into the endosperm tissues without hydrolysis.

The amounts of total soluble label found in the endosperm tissues for 5 hr. after exposure to the labeled sugar are given in Figure IV. The profiles are similar for wild type and ah1 although the uptake was greater in wild type. From 5 hr., the time at which the kernels were removed from the labeled sugar, until 1 hr. there is an increase in label found in the tissue. This increase might be expected if the time needed for transport of sugar, from the end tissue into the endosperm tissues, is greater than 1 hr. From the third through the fifth hour the amount of label declined which may indicate the movement of label into insoluble compounds or loss as CO_2 .

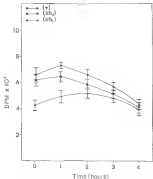


Figure 17. Total uptake in gms of (^{14}C) sucrose into kernels at wild type, *sh1* and *sh2* over five hours. Time is after removal from the label.

The ratio of glucose to fructose of the supplied labeled sucrose was 1.44 and the ratio of glucose to fructose of the samples extracted from the endosperm tissues after a 1 hr. exposure to the labeled sucrose was 1.08. If sucrose was hydrolyzed one would expect an alteration in the ratio of the labeled hexose activities. Hydrolysis and resynthesis of sucrose would lower the ratio, since the hexose were given in glucose, and thus resynthesized sucrose would contain greater amounts of cold glucose than fructose. These results indicate that at a minimum 10% of the supplied sucrose is transported into the endosperm tissues without hydrolysis.

The amounts of total soluble label found in the endosperm tissues for 5 hr. after exposure to the labeled sugar are given in Figure IV. The profiles are similar for wild type and gld although the uptake was greater in wild type. From 0 hr., the time at which the kernels were removed from the labeled sugar, until 1 hr. there is an increase in label found in the tissues. This increase would be expected if the time needed for transport of sugar, from the hot stream into the endosperm tissues, is greater than 1 hr. From the third through the fifth hour the amount of label declined which may indicate the movement of label into insoluble compounds or loss as CO_2 .

In gh₁, the uptake of label was the least of the 3 genotypes and the profile is different from that found in wild type or gh₂ (Figure 17). The amount of label increased through 1 hr. whereas the peak occurred at 2 hr. in wild type and gh₂. Unlike wild type and gh₂, the amount of label in gh₁ declined only slightly from the third to the fifth hour indicating less conversion to gh₁ than in the other genotypes.

The relative amounts of sucrose, glucose and fructose through 1 hr. in wild type are given in Figure 14. For all time periods examined, [¹⁴C] labeled glucose, fructose and sucrose were found. Since label was found in all 3 sugars, considerable conversion of sucrose into fructose and glucose occurred. The percentage of label in sucrose declined over time.

The relative amount of total label in reducing sugars increased with time and after 1 hr. there was more label in the reducing sugars than in sucrose. The amount of fructose in relation to the amount of glucose increased with time.

The relative amounts of sucrose, glucose and fructose in gh₁ as a function of time are given in Figure 18. Results were similar to those obtained for wild type. As in wild type, label was found in sucrose, glucose and fructose at all times examined. The amount of label in

sucrose decreased through the 3 hr. period though not as much as in wild type.

Labeled reducing sugars increased through the 3 hr period and was greater than the label in sucrose by the fourth hour. As in wild type, the relative amount of label in fructose increased in relation to glucose through the 3 hr. period.

For wild type and gh2 the results indicate that sucrose as well as reducing sugars are found in the endosperm tissue. They indicate that 45% of the sucrose is hydrolyzed either before entry, or in the basal area, of the endosperm tissue. The relative increase in fructose in relation to glucose may indicate the involvement of sucrose synthetase in the breakdown of sucrose. Since fructose, and not glucose, is produced by sucrose synthetase one may suspect that more fructose than glucose would be produced if sucrose synthetase does indeed break down sucrose.

The relative amount of label found in gh1 endosperms are given in Figure 24. As in wild type and gh2, labeled sucrose, glucose and fructose were found at all time periods examined. In contrast to wild type and gh2, the amount of label found in sucrose was greater than the amount of label in reducing sugars at all time intervals examined. There was an increase in the relative amount of label in sucrose through the first 3 hr. From the third

through fifth hour the amount of label in sucrose decreased as the amount of label in reducing sugars increased.

In contrast to wild type and gh2, fructose did not increase in comparison to glucose in gh1 endosperms. The absence of the increase in fructose may be due to the absence of sucrose synthetase. Without sucrose synthetase there is no production of fructose relative to glucose as in wild type and gh2. The equal amounts of glucose and fructose may indicate that sucrose is broken down by invertase. Sucrose breakdown is probably accomplished by invertase present in cells of the total areas of the endosperm.

The different rate of sucrose breakdown observed in the 3 genotypes could possibly be attributed to lower invertase activity in gh1 thus leading to less sucrose breakdown. Invertase was measured in the 3 genotypes grown in glare and in gh2 and wild type grown in glare (Table 10). Invertase activities in field grown and culture grown kernels were the same.

The uptake of labeled glucose into kernels of wild type, gh1 and gh2 are given in Figure 18. The relative amounts of sugars found through the period examined in wild type, gh1 and gh2 are given in Figures 19, 20, and 21. Unlike the metabolism and uptake of sucrose the metabolism of glucose was similar in all 3 genotypes and will be discussed together.

Table 3. Invertase Activity in Field-Grown and in Glass-Grown *Malva sylvestris*.

Genotype	In Glass-Grown	Field-Grown
Wild Type	0.187 \pm 0.010 ^a	0.184 \pm 0.011
<i>shrunkac-2</i>	0.184 \pm 0.010	0.184 \pm 0.012
<i>shrunkac-1</i>	0.183 \pm 0.010	7

^a All values are specific activity

^b Not Examined

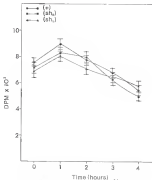


Figure 18. Total uptake in DPM of (^{14}C) glucose (200 μCi) measured at wild type, sh_w and sh_s over time shown. Mean \pm error after removal from the flask.

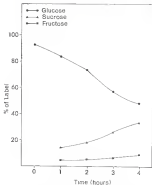


Figure 39. Percentage of ethanol acetic acid, [^{14}C] labeled sucrose, glucose and fructose extracted from endospores over a four hour period after exposure of wild type bacteria to 10% glucose. Bacteria were exposed to the labeled sugar for 1 hr. The start of exposure to the label is -1 hour on graph and removal from the label is at time 0. The chase period was 4 hours.

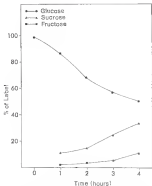


Figure 40: Percentages of alcohol soluble, ^{14}C labeled sucrose, glucose and fructose extracted from *Antennaria* after a five hour period after exposure of *ab2* kernels to ^{14}C glucose. Kernels were exposed to the labeled sugar for 1 hr. The start of exposure to the label is -1 hour on graph and removal from the label is at time 0 - the chase period was 4 hours.

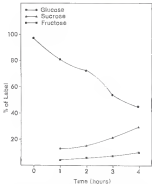


Figure 41. Percentage of ethanol-soluble, [^{14}C] labeled sucrose, glucose and fructose extracted from endosperms after a five hour period after exposure of the kernels to $1\text{-}^{14}\text{C}$ glucose. Kernels were exposed to the labeled sugar for 1 hr. The start of exposure to the label is 0 hour on graph and removal from the label is at time 4. The chase period was 4 hours.

At the end of the first hour only glucose was labeled. From the second to the fifth hour label was found in sucrose. The amount of label in sucrose increased through the 5 hr. analyzed. Also, there was label in fructose that increased through the fifth hour.

These results indicate that the uptake and metabolism of glucose is similar in all 3 yeasts. There appears to be considerable conversion of glucose into sucrose within 5 hr. By the fifth hour 32% of the label was found in sucrose.

Analysis of Nucleoside Sugars by Ion-Exchange Chromatography

Attempts were made to further characterize the nucleoside sugars that were labeled during exposure to the labeled medium. The areas corresponding to the nucleoside sugars were observed and applied to P.E.L.-Cellulose VLO plates. After development the areas that corresponded to AMP and UMP were observed as mentioned for radioactivity. Radioactivity was found but the amount of label was too low to be useful for determining the identity of the nucleoside sugars.

In a second attempt to determine the identity of the radiolabeled compounds, the entire strip of the plate was removed and 1 cm pieces monitored for radioactivity. As is

the first experiment, radiation was detected but it was too low to be quantified.

The inability to isolate the radioactive square could be due to the low specific activity of the labeled proteins supplied. Also, the radioactive square may not be totally removed by the extraction method employed.

DISCUSSION

Development in Tissue

In the initial experiments, kernels of wild type, gh1 and gh2 were grown in culture with sucrose as the carbon source in order to determine if growth in culture mimics growth in vivo. Results obtained from these experiments suggest that growth of kernels in culture is similar to growth in vivo.

Finally, the levels of the enzymes sucrose synthetase, ADPG pyrophosphorylase and starch synthetase as a function of development were characteristic of kernels grown in vivo (Figures 3-15). All enzymes were present in wild type kernels (Figures 9,11,13) and the enzyme associated with each mutation was found to be deficient in the respective genotypes. Developmental profiles of enzymatic activities were similar to results obtained by Tsai, Salasani, and Nelson (1971), suggesting that the enzymes associated with starch biosynthesis are expressed in culture as in vivo.

Secondly, sugar levels during development in the 3 genotypes were similar to those that occur in vivo (Figures 18-20). There is an increase in the level of sucrose, in gh1 and gh2, similar to that found in field grown maize. Also, the increase in sucrose is greater in gh2 than in gh1, which is characteristic of those genotypes grown in the field (Figures 17 & 18) (Crouch 1969, 1972 and Cheurey & Nelson 1975).

Thirdly, the mature kernels of each genotype exhibited their distinct phenotypes (Figures 4-6). Wild type seeds were plump whereas the mutants were shrunken. The gh1 kernels had a characteristic concave crown whereas gh2 endosperms were quite collapsed.

Finally, the relative differences in starch content among the 3 genotypes grown in culture were similar to those found in seeds grown in vivo (Table 2) (Crouch 1969, Cheurey & Nelson 1975). Finally, the relative differences in germination among the the genotypes were similar in cultured and in vivo grown seeds (Hannah & Castlefield 1974, Hane & Crane 1979) (Table 2).

These data indicate that growth in culture of wild type, gh1 and gh2 kernels is representative of growth in the field. The parameters examined in developing kernels, mature kernels and germinating kernels grown in culture were similar to field grown kernels,

Utilization of Kernels Grown in Culture on Different Carbon Sources

Native viable seeds can be produced on media containing sugars other than sucrose. Kernels of all 3 genotypes are capable of synthesizing sucrose as well as carrying out other sugar interconversions. Regardless of the carbon source, all 3 of the neutral sugars were present in the endosperm tissues at all times examined indicating that the endosperm tissues carry out extensive synthesis and are capable of sugar interconversions (Figures 14-24).

Kernels grown on glucose contained 54 to 101 of the amount of fructose is comparable to that observed when kernels were grown on sucrose (Figures 19,21,215). Likewise, kernels grown on fructose contained 30 to 100% of the amount of glucose in sucrose grown kernels (Figures 25,32,38). The presence of the hexose, not supplied in the medium, could arise from the direct conversion of the supplied hexose by the action of various isomerases, hexoses and phosphorylases. Equally probable, the breakdown of sucrose, synthesized from the supplied hexose, could account for the presence of both hexoses.

The level of sucrose, in kernels grown on reducing sugars, is 101 to 109 of the level found in kernels grown on sucrose indicating that considerable sucrose is produced

in the endosperm tissues. There is a build up of sucrose in ghj and ghj kernels grown on sucrose similar to the increases found in kernels grown on sucrose or kernels grown in the field. It is interesting that sucrose increases, and not reducing sugars, in the mature kernels grown on reducing sugars. The build up of sucrose in kernels grown on reducing sugars may indicate an integral role of sucrose in starch biosynthesis. Shannon (1964) has suggested that sucrose is phosphorylated in the cytoplasm and could be used for starch biosynthesis. Conversely, the buildup of sucrose may reflect the storage of excess carbon that is not needed for starch biosynthesis in the mature.

These data also indicate that wild type levels of sucrose synthetase are not vital for sucrose synthesis. ghj kernels are greatly deficient in sucrose synthetase, nevertheless, they accumulate sucrose when grown on sucrose or glucose. The residual sucrose synthetase activity present in the ghj kernels may account for the sucrose found or some other enzyme may be operating here.

Although kernels of the 3 genotypes were viable when grown on the different sugars, quantitative differences were observed during development and in the mature seeds. One of the most interesting observations is that starch content varied with carbon source in kernels of the same genotype. This provides a method of examining the

Relationship between starch content and seed germination are possible factors. It has long been considered that starch content and seed vigor were related based on comparisons made of several genotypes that differ in starch content. Yet, since different genotypes were compared it is not possible to rule out other factors. By comparing germination and growth of seeds of the same genotype, differing in the amount of starch they contain, the relationship between vigor and starch content may be further elucidated.

It has been considered that starch content is an important energy source during germination since genotypes that have low starch content have poorer seed vigor than do genotypes with higher amounts of starch (Hass & Crane 1935, Hass & Costillie 1976, Siges, Costillie & Hass 1980). However, examination of starch deficient genotypes revealed that the differences in energy utilization were not sufficient to account for the differences in seed vigor (Siges, Costillie & Hass 1980, Ware 1980). Recently, it has been shown that differences exist in the vigor of embryos of high and low starch genotypes suggesting that starch content of the endosperm may not be the only factor involved in seed vigor (Costillie & Siges 1982, Ware 1980).

There is a correlation between starch content, seed weight, germination rate index and total germination in all

3 genotypes examined. In general, seeds with the highest starch content, regardless of genotype, also had better germination. Germination differences do not appear to be related to the specific deficiencies found in the mutant genotypes but rather are related to starch content (p4, p5). The differences found in seeds of the same genotype grown on different sugars supports the suggestion that starch content (p4, p5) plays a role in seed germination and thus seed vigor.

Transport of Sucrose Into The Meristematic Region

In experiments examining the uptake of labeled sucrose, the first area of interest was to examine the transport of sucrose from the meristem into the endosperm tissue. Results obtained by Shannon and Dougherty (1972) suggest that sucrose is hydrolyzed to glucose and fructose in the basal region of the kernel before transport into the endosperm tissue. This was based on the findings that reducing sugars accounted for greater than 80% of the radioactivity whereas sucrose accounted for less than 10% of the radioactivity at earlier time intervals in kernels from plants exposed to ^{14}C CO_2 (Shannon 1968). The concentration of reducing sugars was found to be greatest in the glucose-starch region (Shannon 1972) suggesting

that hydrolysis occurred in this region. It was also found that activity of invertase was greater, during active starch synthesis, in the basal regions in comparison to the other regions of the kernel, supporting the idea of sucrose hydrolysis in this region (Shannon and Dougherty, 1973). From an analysis of kernel anatomy and data obtained from microradiography, Shannon proposed that sucrose was transported through the epiblast in the pericarp region and was hydrolyzed in the placenta-distal end endosperm transfer cell region (Fulker and Shannon 1980, Shannon 1979).

The results reported here indicate that sucrose can be transported into the endosperm tissue without hydrolysis. The experiments of Figures 14-16 indicate that at least 55% of the sucrose entering the endosperm entered as sucrose without hydrolysis. Kernels, grown with glucose as the carbon source, were supplied with labeled sucrose for 1 hr, followed by isolation of the sugars from the endosperm tissue. After 1 hr., 55% of the radioactivity was found as sucrose. The sucrose was isolated, hydrolyzed, and the ratio of glucose to fructose determined. If sucrose had been hydrolyzed and re-synthetized, one would expect a change in the ratio of glucose to fructose because the concentration of glucose is greater than the concentration of fructose in kernels grown

as glucose. Therefore, if sucrose is hydrolyzed, the labeled glucose moiety would be diluted to a greater extent than would the labeled fructose moiety. Sucrose synthesized from this pool would contain a greater concentration of labeled fructose than glucose.

In the results reported above the ratio of [^{14}C] glucose to [^{14}C] fructose of sucrose isolated from endosperm tissue was identical to that of the free labeled sucrose supplied to the developing seed. Since the radiolabeled sucrose has equal amounts of label on the fructose and glucose moieties it is suggested that at least 10% of the supplied sucrose is transported into the endosperm cells without hydrolysis.

This is in contrast to the results obtained by Shannon (1951) which suggest that most of the sucrose is hydrolyzed before entry into the endosperm tissue. Results obtained by Jenner (1973, 1981), using techniques similar to those employed here, support that sucrose is not hydrolyzed during uptake into the developing wheat seed. In an investigation of sucrose uptake into wheat kernels, utilizing asymmetrically labeled sucrose in an *in vitro* system, Jenner determined that sucrose hydrolysis was not a prerequisite for transport into endosperm tissue (Jenner 1973, 1981). By the use of similar labeling techniques the transport of sucrose into potato slices (Shady & Bories

1948), the phases of root elongation (1977), control bean outgrowth (Brinmann & Weaver 1947), bean pod closure (Barber 1944) and into carrot culm cultures (Wilson & Baines 1971) is accomplished without hydrolysis.

The results reported above do not totally exclude a prerequisite for sucrose hydrolysis before entry into the endosperm tissue. First, if invertase, which is thought to be responsible for sucrose hydrolysis, has lowered activity in kernels grown in culture as compared to kernels grown in the field then one might expect sucrose to enter the endosperm tissue without hydrolysis in kernel grown in vitro. This possibility was examined and it was found that invertase levels in field grown and in vitro grown wild type and ah2 maize were similar (Table 5) which suggest that hydrolysis of sucrose occurs to the same degree in culture and field grown maize. Also the level of invertase was similar in all 3 of the genotypes grown in culture (Table 5).

Secondly, if hydrolysis of sucrose occurs in a localized region at the kernel base, as suggested by Shannon (1978), then isolated pools of labeled hexoses might develop. If resynthesis of sucrose occurred in this region, it is reasonable for the newly resynthesized sucrose to contain equivalent amounts of labeled glucose and fructose moieties. This would agree with the results

reported here. However, as all probability an isolated pool of labeled sucrose does not occur due to the presence of the unlabeled sucrose in the medium which is transported at the same time as the labeled sucrose.

Metabolism of labeled sucrose and glucose

A series of pulse-chase experiments were conducted to investigate the metabolism of labeled sucrose and glucose in the endosperms of the 3 genotypes. These experiments were performed in order to determine the rate at which sugars are transported into the endosperm as well as to determine the initial transformations that sugars undergo once they reach the endosperm tissues. Also, these experiments might elucidate the role of sucrose synthetase in starch biosynthesis.

As in the analysis of mature seeds, several results from the pulse-chase experiments indicate that sucrose metabolism differs in gh in comparison to that in wild type and gh mutants. Furthermore, this difference can be attributed to the role of sucrose synthetase in the breakdown of sucrose and in starch synthesis.

First, the breakdown of sucrose occurred at a lower rate in gh in comparison to gh or wild type suggesting that sucrose is not as efficiently metabolized in gh.

(Figures 14-16). This would be expected if sucrose synthetase, which is greatly reduced in sh1, is involved in sucrose breakdown.

Secondly, there is a greater increase of reducing sugars in wild type and sh2 than in sh1 kernels supplied with [14 C] labeled sucrose (Figures 14-16). Again this suggests that sucrose is metabolized at a faster rate in sh2 and wild type than in sh1. More importantly, the amount of fructose produced from sucrose is greater than the amount of glucose in wild type and sh2 endosperms whereas the amounts of glucose and fructose are equivalent in sh1 endosperms. The increase in fructose relative to glucose observed in wild type and sh2 kernels would be expected if sucrose synthetase is involved in sucrose breakdown since fructose, and not glucose, is produced when sucrose is broken down by sucrose synthetase. The absence of an increase in fructose in sh1 adds credence to this possibility.

Thirdly, an observation that suggests the involvement of sucrose synthetase in sucrose breakdown and regulation of sucrose uptake is the difference found in the uptake of labeled sucrose between sh1 and the other genotypes (Figure 17). The uptake of labeled sucrose into the endosperm tissue was greater in wild type and sh2 than in sh1 (Figure 17) suggesting that the K_m of wild type levels of sucrose

synthetase is ah1 may affect the rate at which sucrose is transported into the endosperm cells. This would be expected if the net movement of sucrose, transported from the kernel base into the endosperm cells, is dependent on the ability of the endosperm cells to remove sucrose from the transported pool. A greater amount of sucrose could be transported into wild type and ah2 kernels because sucrose is removed from the transported pool by the action of sucrose synthetase. This then suggests the involvement of sucrose synthetase in the regulation of sucrose uptake into endosperm cells.

The analysis of the uptake and conversion of [14 C] labeled glucose also supports the notion that sucrose synthetase is involved in sucrose metabolism as well as providing additional evidence that sucrose can be synthesized in the maize endosperm. It was found that the uptake and metabolism of glucose is the same in all 3 genotypes. There were no differences in the amount of glucose found in the endosperm tissue (Figure 18), or in the conversion of glucose to sucrose in the 3 genotypes (Figures 19-21). This suggests that glucose metabolism is similar in all 3 genotypes. This also indicates that the alteration of sucrose metabolism in ah1 is not due simply to a general depression of sugar metabolism but rather is a specific response to sucrose. If this were not the case

that the activation of glucose in gh1 should be altered in the same fashion as in sucrose metabolism.

In all 3 genotypes there was conversion of labeled glucose into sucrose (Figure 21-22) which agrees with results obtained by Shannon (1972) that sucrose is synthesized in the endosperm cells. Also, these results suggest that sucrose synthetase may not be involved in sucrose synthesis since sucrose synthesis occurred in gh1 at the same rate as in wild type and gh2. Sucrose synthesis is greatly reduced in gh3; therefore, sucrose synthesis may occur through the action of some other enzyme or could be due to the residual 74 sucrose synthetase activity found in these gh3 alleles.

The observations discussed above suggest that sucrose metabolism in gh2 is deficient in comparison to sucrose metabolism in wild type and gh3 and that sucrose synthetase plays a role in starch biosynthesis. These data are in agreement with the results obtained by Cheurey and Bolomey (1974) which suggest that sucrose synthetase is involved in sucrose oxidation. In addition to the results obtained from the $[^{14}C]$ labeling experiments other data indicate the involvement of sucrose synthetase in starch biosynthesis. As shown earlier, the weight and starch content of wild type and gh1 kernels were greater when kernels were grown on sucrose than gh2 kernels were heavier and had greater

starch content when grown on reducing sugars. These results are consistent with the function of sucrose synthetase in the breakdown of sucrose. Superior growth of gh seeds when grown on reducing sugars may be attributed to partially bypassing the block in sucrose metabolism caused by the lack of sucrose synthetase. By supplying reducing sugars to gh kernels the block in sucrose metabolism may be bypassed allowing reducing sugars to be utilized for starch biosynthesis and resulting in kernels having greater starch content.

One intriguing observation, concerning the utilization of sugars, is that there is considerable synthesis of sucrose in kernels grown on reducing sugars. Why then are differences in seed growth observed due to carbon source? One might expect, a priori, that sucrose produced in wild type and gh kernels grown on reducing sugars would be utilized in starch biosynthesis, by conversion of sucrose by sucrose synthetase, and thus negate any differences due to carbon source. Yet there exist differences in seed weight and starch content due to carbon source.

The explanation for the differences observed in wild type and gh has to do with the rate at which sugar is transported into the endosperm tissue. In comparing the rate of sucrose and glucose transport using [14 C] labeled sugars, it was found that glucose was transported at a 20%

greater rate than sucrose in malar equivalents (Figures 10 & 11). But in human equivalents, sucrose supplies glucose at a faster rate. Thus sucrose may be a superior carbon source due to the greater amount of carbon transported into the endoplasmic tissue.

Another explanation for the results found in wild type and gk kernels is the following. If the sucrose that is transported into the endoplasmic tissue is used in starch synthesis more efficiently than the sucrose that is synthesized internally, the differences can be explained. Bolter and Albertine (1959) have suggested that sucrose synthetase is associated with the cell membrane in Pinus and that breakdown of sucrose by sucrose synthetase may occur as sucrose is transported into the cells. If a similar situation occurs in maize, then sucrose that is transported into the cells may be broken down by sucrose synthetase as it passes into the endoplasmic cells. Sucrose that is synthesized internally, as sucrose in cells grown on reducing sugars, may be stored in vacuoles or other cell compartments and hydrolyzed to a greater extent by invertase than by sucrose synthetase.

CONCLUSIONS

Barrels of wild type, gh1 (deficient in sucrose synthetase) and gh2 (deficient in ADPG pyrophosphorylase), placed in culture on sucrose at 50pp, will develop to maturity and germinate. It was determined that development to ripen within 14 days development by all of the following criteria.

(1) The barrels have their expected phenotype at maturity and when germinated, vigor differences were observed that reflect differences seen in field grown seeds.

(2) The enzymes sucrose synthetase, ADPG pyrophosphorylase and starch synthetase were examined throughout development. These enzymes exhibit activity profiles similar to those found in field grown seeds, sucrose synthetase was deficient in gh1 and ADPG pyrophosphorylase was deficient in gh2.

(1) Analysis of sucrose revealed that there was a build up of sucrose in the mutants that is similar to the build up found in field grown maize.

(2) Relative differences were found in starch levels of kernels grown in vitro that are the same as kernels grown in vivo. Wild type seeds had the greatest starch while gh1 had the least.

After determination that in vitro kernel development reflects in vivo growth, kernels of all 3 genotypes were grown on sucrose, glucose or fructose. Analysis of the developing and mature seeds revealed that:

(1) Mutant seeds of all genotypes exhibited their expected phenotype of autotrophy regardless of sugar source.

(2) Regardless of sugar source, sucrose, glucose and fructose were found in the endosperm tissue indicating that kernels are capable of synthesizing sucrose. Kernels grown on reducing sugars had greater amounts of reducing sugars than kernels grown on sucrose. Also, there was an increase in the concentration of sucrose, similar to field grown maize, in the mutants regardless of the sugar source.

(3) Wild type and gh2 seeds had a significantly greater weight and starch level when grown on sucrose than when grown on reducing sugars. In contrast to wild type and gh2, gh1 kernels had a greater weight and starch level

when grown on glucose. Furthermore, seed vigor was correlated with starch content and seed weight.

In an effort to determine the basis for the differences observed in the seeds grown on the different sugars, a series of pulse-chase experiments were conducted to examine the uptake and metabolism of [14 C] labeled sucrose and glucose, over a 5 hr. period, into kernels grown in vitro.

Evidence indicates that growth and metabolism differs in gh1 in comparison to wild type and gh2. These differences can be attributed to the lack of sucrose synthetase in gh1. Furthermore, evidence indicates that sucrose synthetase is involved in sucrose breakdown and not sucrose synthesis.

(1) It was found that 50% of the supplied sucrose was transported into the endosperm tissue without hydrolysis indicating that diffusion occurs as well as sucrose is transported into the endosperm cells.

(2) The amount of [14 C] labeled sucrose taken up was similar in wild type and gh2 kernels. In contrast, uptake was less in gh1. This may be expected if sucrose breakdown is limiting and thus, less sucrose is transported into the endosperm cells.

(3) The conversion of sucrose was similar in wild type and gh2. Over the time period examined there was no

increase in the relative amount of labeled fructose found in relation to labeled glucose. There was more label in reducing sugars than in sucrose by the fifth hour. There was not a relative increase in fructose to glucose in gh and there was greater label in sucrose than in reducing sugars at the fifth hour. This indicates a deficiency in sucrose utilization in gh, again suggesting the involvement of sucrose synthetase in sucrose breakdown. Also, the relative increase in fructose may be expected since fructose is one of the products of sucrose breakdown by sucrose synthetase.

(ii) The uptake and conversion of labeled glucose was similar for the 3 genotypes. Sucrose was labeled at the same rate in the 3 genotypes indicating that no differences exist in glucose utilization in the 3 genotypes.

All of these data suggest that the role of sucrose synthetase is in the breakdown, and not synthesis, of sucrose.

REFERENCES

- BRAD, L., B. POLANSKY, C. PETER & R. PALMER, 1976
Regulation of starch metabolism in the developing maize grain
Plant Physiol. 48:428-434.
- BRADY, S. & C. HOFFER, 1971. Regulation of carbohydrate
metabolism in developing barley silicula grain
Physiologia. 12:1723-1728.
- CANTLIFE, G.D. & R. JAGER, 1981. vigor differences in
cultured embryos of barley mutants of maize. Plant
Physiol. 67:49. (Abstract only)
- CHERRY, P., 1971. Intracellular Complementations at the gl
Locus in Maize. Genetica 48:419-422.
- CHERRY, P. & G. NELSON, 1976. The Enzymatic Efficiency
Conditioned by the amylase Mutations in Maize. Biochem.
Genetics 14:1842-1848.
- CHERRY, P. & G. NELSON, 1978. Intracellular Complementations
at the gl Locus in Maize at the Enzyme Level. Genetica
49:317-328.
- CHU, L. D. & J. C. SHANNON, 1975. In Maize Genes of Maize
Endosperm--A Model System for Studying in vivo Starch
Biosynthesis. Crop Sci. 15:814-815.
- CRITCH, R., 1967. Genetic Control of Carbohydrate Synthesis
in Maize Endosperm. Genetica 32:1175-1184.
- CRITCH, R., 1968. Carbohydrate Synthesis in Maize. Adv.
Agron. 20:273-312.

Salmer, D., 1971a The Purification and Properties of Sucrose Synthetase from Isolated Pharusia aurea Seedlings. J. Biol. Chem. 247:1822-1828.

Salmer, D., 1971b The Regulatory Properties of Purified Pharusia aurea Sucrose Synthetase. Plant Physiol. 50:467-472.

Salmer, D. & P. Silberstein, 1970 The Biosynthesis of Sucrose and Maltotriose Diphosphate Glucose in Pharusia aurea. Plant Physiol. 45:781-788.

Sickman, G. & J. Preiss, 1969a ADP-Glucose Phosphorylase from Marine Eudicots. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 130:429-438.

Sickman, G. & J. Preiss, 1969b Presence of ADP-Glucose Phosphorylase in Arabidopsis and Brassica Mutants of Marine Eudicots. Plant Physiol. 44:1878-1883.

Silman, J. & A. Hanson, 1971 Sucrose Synthesis of Chlorophyll Synthesis in Green Callus Cultures. Planta 118:126-128.

Talbot, P. & J. Shannon, 1969 Movement of [14 C]-labeled Assimilates into Kernels of Soy Bean L. III: An Anatomical Examination and Autoradiographic Study of Assimilate Transport. Plant Physiol. 43:844-852.

Perryman, J. E., D. B. Dickerson & A. M. Rhodes, 1970 Analysis of Endosperm Sugars in a Sweet Corn Inbred Which Contains the Sugary Enhancer Gene and Comparison of su with Other Gene Genotypes. Plant Physiol. 41:408-413.

Preiss, J., J. Nardone & C. Chou, 1970 Development Potential of Sweet Corn Cultures. Maydica 21:17-22.

Pryde, S. E., S. C. DeGroot & C. E. Cardoni, 1968 Distribution of sucrose diphosphate 3-glucose 1,4-glucose 3-4-glucose 6-phosphate in Higher Plants. Biochem. Biophys. Acta, 113:420-423.

Geigensack, R., 1977 Development of Nucleo Caryopores Resulting from Surviving Pollination. Planta 134:91-99.

Geigh, R. & J. Fraine, 1964 Adenosine Diphosphate Glucose Pyrophosphorylase. A Regulatory Enzyme in the Synthesis of Starch in Spinach Leaf Chloroplasts. J. Biol. Chem. 239:4453-4454.

Geigensack, R., 1977 Sucrose Hydrolysis in Relation to Protein Translocation in Isula xanthica. Plant Physiol. 49:319-323.

Gudy, P. & G. Noyes, 1968 Sugar Metabolism and Carbohydrates in Potato Tuber Starch. New Phytol. 67:119-121.

Hansen, L.C. & G.B. Carlson, 1974 Levels of Various Carbohydrate Quantitators and Percentage Determination of Four Diverging Heritage Sweet Corn. Proc. Fla. State Hort. Soc. 86:85-87.

Hansen, L.C. & G.B. Nelson, 1975 Characterization of Adenosine Diphosphate Glucose Pyrophosphorylase from Developing Maize Kernels. Plant Physiol. 55:157-162.

Hansen, L.C. & G.B. Nelson, 1976 Characterization of ADP-Glucose Pyrophosphorylase from Shalimar-2 and Shalimar-3 Strains of Maize. Planta Genetica 11:547-552.

Hansen, L. C., G. B. Dunham & L. J. Hays, 1980 Multiple Forms of Maize Endosperm ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase and Their Control by Shalimar-2 and Shalimar-3. Genetics 95:861-872.

Harker, J., 1975 Enzymes Concerned With Sucrose Synthesis and Translocation in Seeds of Maize, Broad Bean and Garden Bean. Phytochem. 14:2211-2219.

Harker, J. & J. Gordon, 1974 Starch Synthesis from Yield Yield and Yield Yield. Phytochem. 13:483-488.

- Santer, J., B. Marchant & A. Brown, 1979 Starch Synthesis in Developing Potato Tubers. *Physiol. Plant.* 44:21-28.
- Santer, J., J. Oliver & J. Farlow, 1972 Synthesised Starch Synthesis by Salivary ADP-Glucose - Starch Glucosyltransferase From Potato Tubers. *Phytochem.* 11:1287-1291.
- Seaton, T.A. & G.E. Wilson, 1971 Transmembrane Activity in Normal and Hybrid Mouse Endoperms During Development. *Plant Physiol.* 49:422-428.
- Senior, C., 1973 The Uptake of Sucrose and Its Conversion to Starch in Detached Ears of Wheat. *J. Exp. Bot.* 18:295-304.
- Senior, C., 1974 An Investigation of the Association Between the Hydrolysis of Sucrose and Its Absorption by Ears of Wheat. *Aust. J. Plant Physiol.* 21:115-129.
- Senior, C. & J. Buchanan, 1979 Light-Dark Regulation of Starch Metabolism in Chloroplasts 1. Levels of metabolites in Chloroplasts and Medium During Light-Dark Transitions. *Plant Physiol.* 63:1295-1298.
- Simonsick, T., 1969 The Structure and Reproduction of Corn. Research Bulletin 181, University of Nebraska College of Agriculture.
- Simonsick, T. & F. Walker, 1962 Structure of Carbons Specified in Waxes in the Kernel of Corn. *Ann. N. Y. Bot. Soc.* 20:261-267.
- Somerville, R. & Carter Weber, 1980 Identification and Subcellular Localization of Starch-Metabolizing Enzymes in the Green Alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Planta* 149:126-137.

Friedmann, P. & R. Susskind, 1967 Sugar Uptake and Translocation in the Center Vase Seedling II. Sugar Translocation During Uptake. *Plant Physiol.* 42:176-182.

Lin, T. & J. Shannan, 1961a A Homogeneous Procedure for Isolating Starch Granules with Associated Metabolites from Potato Endosperms. *Plant Physiol.* 37:518-524.

Lin, T. & J. Shannan, 1961b Measurement of Metabolites Associated With Homogeneously Isolated Starch Granules from Potatoes [see *1961a* & Endosperm]. *Plant Physiol.* 47:525-528.

Macdonald, G. A., A. E. Othello, J. Ballit & E. Stokke, 1975 Sugar Levels in the Fox Sparrow? Regulation by Invertase and Sucrose Synthetase. *Phytologia*, 1:151-155.

Mace, R., J. Barker and J. Pennington, 1976 Starch Synthesizing Enzymes in Chloroplasts of Developing Leaves of Spinach. *J. Exp. Bot.* 26:829-836.

Mann, E. & R. Marchbank, 1966 Assimilate Conversion in Potato Tubers in Relation to Starch Deposition and Cell Growth. *Int. Reunion. Bot. Gen.* 5:299-313.

Morre, C. & J. Turner, 1963 ADP-Glucose Pyrophosphorylase in Wheat Grains. *Nature* 191:383-384.

Narita, T. & T. Kuroawa, 1964 The Role of Adenosine Diphosphate Glucose in Leaf Starch Formation. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Comm.* 18:6-11.

Nasi, S.E. & F.L. Craig, 1966 Effect of Endosperm Mutants on Germination and Early Seedling Growth Rate on Maize [see *1961a* & *7*]. *Crop Science* 16:139-142.

Reiser, W., 1964 A Photometric Adaptation of the Benedict Method for the Determination of Glucose. *J. Biol. Chem.* 199:379-385.

Reiser, W. & R.W. Kohn, 1962 The Enzymatic Deficiency in the waxy Mutant of Maize. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Comm.* 9:113-121.

Salomon, O. & C. Tzag, 1964 Glucose Transfer From Adenosine Diphosphate-Glucose to Starch in Preparations of Egg Sperm. Science 145:1174-1175.

Nichols, R. & E. Sowers, 1977 Subcellular Distribution of Glucanase Activity in Adipogenic Tissue from Endospore. Plant Physiol. 44:14-17.

Somero, T. & T. Aho, 1973 The Purification and Enzymatic Properties of Sucrose Synthetase. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 155:444-452.

Olson, J., J. Barker, E. Gaudin, E. Lamm & J. Frazer, 1973 Starch Synthetase, Phosphorylase, Adenosine Pyrophosphorylase and Adenosine Pyrophosphorylase in Embryonic Cells. Plant Physiol. 51:2-3.

Olson, J., J. Barker & J. Frazer, 1971 Adenosine Diphosphate-Glucose Starch Glucanase Transfer From Developing Sperm of Egg Sperm. Plant Physiol. 44:742-745.

Olson, J., A. Fiedler, E. Gaudin, E. Williams & E. Lamm, 1973 Synthesis of Carbohydrate Metabolism in the Developing Egg Sperm. Plant Physiol. 54:575-581.

Frazer, J., 1973 Regulation of Adenosine Diphosphate Glucose Pyrophosphorylase. Adenosine, in Enzymol. 48:227-232.

Frazer, J. & E. Gaudin, 1973 ADP- 14 C Glucose. Methods Enzymol. 34:277-281.

Frazer, J., E. Lamm & E. Gaudin, 1971 A Unique Adenosine Diphosphate-Glucose Pyrophosphorylase Associated with Embryonic Tissue. Plant Physiol. 47:184-188.

Frazer, J., 1975 Purification of Sucrose Synthetase, Properties, and Changes in Activity Associated with Maturation. Plant Physiol. 48:235-244.

Sanderson, E. & E. Sanderson, 1964 Ion-Exchange Chromatography of Saccharides on Poly-(vinylamine)-Cellulose Thin Layers. J. Chromatog. 20:111-120.

Severson, R. & L. Saloir, 1941. Adenosine diphosphate diesterase and starch synthetase. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 43:431-434.

See, J., 1934. A Colorimetric Method for the Determination of Fructose in Blood and Urine. J. Biol. Chem. 107:13-15.

Sheld, E. B. & C. Turner, 1957. Physiology of Fox Fodder. Aust. J. Biol. Sci. 10:414-429.

Shiner, J., 1944. The Regulation of Sugar Storage and Accumulation in Bean Pod Tissue. Plant Physiol. 41:181-189.

Shenoi, S., E. Gundersy, J. Hardin, E. Ganesan & J. Pridmore, 1975. Regulation of Starch Biosynthesis in Plant Leaves: Activation and Inhibition of ADP-glucose Pyrophosphorylase. Plant Physiol. 45:413-420.

Shenoi, S. & J. Pridmore, 1967. Biosynthesis of Starch in *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* II. Regulation of ADP-glucose 1-Pyrophosphate Kinase Transference by Inorganic Phosphate and 2-Phosphoglycerate. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 115:455-465.

Shannon, J., 1948. Carbon-14 Distribution in Carbohydrates of Immature *Tag. taga* Buds Following 0-24 Hr. Treatment of Intact Plants. Plant Physiol. 43:1213-1218.

Shannon, J., 1971. Movement of 14 C-labeled Assimilated Into Buds of *Tag. taga* L. J. Patterns and Rate of Sugar Movement. Plant Physiol. 48:438-454.

Shannon, J., 1974. In Vivo Incorporation of Carbon-14 Into *Tag. taga* L. Starch Synthesis. Carbohyd. Chem. 53:789-805.

Shannon, J., 1975. Physiological Factors Affecting Starch Accumulation in *Cocc. Buds*. Sixty-third Annual Conf. and Spring Research Conference, 78-84.

Shannon, J. & J. Bailey, 1973. Inbred and Spontaneous Effects on Establishment of 1x 2150 Cultures of *Tag. taga* L. Indispensa. Coop. Review 13:481-493.

Mann, R. E., 1960 Food Value and Respiration of Male Rats with Different Endocrine Genotypes. *J. Amer. Nutr. Soc.* 30:31-34.

Weathermon, R., 1935 The Endocrine of Sex and Colg. *Amer. J. Sci.* 17:171-184.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

The author was born and raised in Harris, Kentucky, a small town in the southeastern part of the state. As a child, he was very interested in science and established a lab at the age of 18. Little did he know that his childhood fascination with science would develop into his life's work. His interest in science increased, especially in biology, and he decided to major in biology as an undergraduate at The University of Alabama. He became fascinated with plant developmental biology and genetics and worked in the area of plant development for his master's degree at The University of Alabama. His Ph.D. work, at the University of Florida, was in the area of genetics and physiology of starch synthesis in maize. The author is presently a post-doctoral associate at Washington State University. He is married to C. L. Sheffield and claims to have no children. However, when pressed, he will admit to having a cat. He has never been to Paris.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



I.R. Vail
Graduate Research Professor of
Botany

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



D.J. Cankovic
Professor of Horticulture Science

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



P. Christy
Assistant Professor of Agronomy

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



L.C. Young, Chairman
Associate Professor of
Horticulture Science

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



T. Humphreys
Professor of Horticulture Science

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Emily G. Hunt
Professor of Biochemistry and
Molecular Biology

This Dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
the College of Agriculture and to the Graduate Council, and
was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Philosophy

May 1962



Prof. College of Agriculture

Dean for Graduate Studies and
Research